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About

- The scientific Education & Pedagogy Journal aims to make the results of scientific research and practical activities in the field of pedagogy of education mutually accessible to international and Russian specialists.
- The founder of the journal is Tomsk State Pedagogical University.

The journal publishes:

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ART EDUCATION FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN IRAQ AND RUSSIA

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Abstract. This article examines the characteristics of art education for primary school students in Iraq and Russia. The study aims to identify the traditions, characteristics, content, and methods of teaching art in primary schools in the two countries. Art education in Russia has a long tradition based on pedagogical and psychological research. In Russia, there is a unified curriculum for teaching art, but in Iraq, there is no unified program for all schools, so teachers can create or choose their own curricula. The Russian art education program has a secular character. It introduces students to the art world and combines creative teaching with exposure to fine art masterpieces. A battle between secular and religious educational trends has been taking place in Iraq for years. Islamic influences are evident in many schools, where traditional art forms such as ornamentation and calligraphy are emphasized. Nevertheless, Western traditions play an important role in training visual arts teachers. Iraqi teachers and artists are reinterpreting Islamic art traditions in a contemporary framework, expanding their reach and potential.

Keywords: *teaching art in primary school, cultural traditions of Russia and Iraq, programs for teaching art in primary school, deficits in art education*

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Introduction

Arts education is a universal element of modern schooling that plays a key role in developing students' creativity, emotional intelligence, critical thinking, and cultural awareness [1–3]. Learning art, especially drawing, is crucial for developing children's personalities and connection to cultural values [4]. However, art education is strongly influenced by cultural traditions [5–7]. Comparison of teaching

principles and methods and cultural exchange can significantly improve art education in countries with different cultures and traditions.

Cultural traditions include beliefs, customs, practices, and artistic symbols passed down through generations [8–11]. These traditions shape the content, methods, and specific approaches of art education and influence the choice of subjects and topics taught in art classes [12]. For example, in countries with strong religious traditions, art education may include religious themes, while in regions with an ethnic heritage, the focus may be on traditional art forms and symbols. Arts education plays an important role in fostering a sense of cultural identity among students [11].

This article examines how cultural traditions shape arts education in Iraq and Russia – two countries with different backgrounds, artistic traditions, and cultural heritage. The focus is on analyzing the two countries' existing arts education programs in compulsory primary schools.

Iraq is known for its rich artistic history dating back to ancient Mesopotamia, which is often regarded as one of the cradles of civilization. The country's cultural traditions greatly influence the arts education of school children [13, 14]. An important aspect of this influence is the emphasis on Iraq's historical and cultural significance, with cultural heritage largely focused on preserving traditional art forms such as calligraphy and mosaics.

In the modern creative environment of Iraq, there is a complicated relationship between traditional and contemporary art movements [15]. While Islamic influence dominated the arts until the 20th century, the rise of professional art education led to some changes. Artists began to explore modern forms of expression and blend Western techniques with traditional art forms. However, these experiments mainly affected professional artists [16]. Islamic traditions still influence schools, with art classes focusing on geometric and abstract patterns common in Islamic art and architecture. The primary goal of art education in Iraq is to preserve the country's cultural identity and heritage by teaching traditional art forms and familiarizing students with the works of local artists.

The Russian art education system is characterized by a diverse cultural foundation and influenced by a combination of Slavic, Asian, and European art traditions [4, 7, 8]. Western art schools significantly influence children's art education, although traditional folk art is also encouraged. Russia's vast and diverse geography has led to the development of unique arts and crafts, such as clay doll making (which

differs in different regions), wooden toys, including matryoshkas, and decorative styles, such as Parekh miniature painting and Khokhloma painting. These artistic traditions are incorporated into the primary school art curriculum, which provides students with a rich and diverse approach to art education.

It is worth noting that art education in primary school in Russia is conducted in two forms: as a compulsory subject (in general education schools) and as a supplementary subject (in art schools with special specialized programs). Art education programs in Russia are based on extensive theoretical research, including psychological and pedagogical studies, which establish methodological principles for teaching art and examine specific pedagogical approaches [1, 17–20, 22].

The main principles of the Russian art education program are laid down in the Decree of the Ministry of Culture of the Russian Federation No. 1403 of December 28, 2001, “On the Concept of Art Education in the Russian Federation.” This document contains the following provisions: the importance of an early start to art education; continuity and succession at the various levels of art education; a multicultural approach that incorporates a wide range of artistic styles and national traditions, with an emphasis on indigenous culture; the consideration of national and cultural characteristics in the development of curricula for art subjects; a comprehensive approach to teaching art disciplines that emphasizes the interaction of different art forms; the promotion of diverse educational programs tailored to the abilities and needs of each individual student; and the implementation of personalized teaching methods in art education, including individualized approaches for particularly gifted students [21].

Russian scientists have repeatedly emphasized the importance of accessible and widespread arts education for developing mentally healthy people. A. Melik-Pashayev emphasizes this in his work: “The strictly rational character of education leads to the neglect of the emotional sphere of a growing person, to the neglect of his emotional and moral development – in essence, his spiritual life. This inevitably leads to an ‘emotional blunting,’ a lack of sensitivity towards others and nature, and a disturbing dominance of a narrow intellect that cannot distinguish between good and evil. In contrast, artistic and creative experiences foster emotional sensitivity and emotional intelligence – the ability to understand one’s own inner world and that of others” [22, p. 5].

Research shows that young children have a rich capacity for artistic creativity and a natural openness to express their experiences through

art. However, without structured and systematic training, these skills often fade by puberty and are hindered by a lack of confidence in their ability to create meaningful artistic works [20, 22].

Currently, in Russia, there is a unified curriculum for teaching art in primary schools (grades 1–4), developed under the leadership of the artist and educator B. Nemensky and his co-authors [2, 5].

The training program for primary school teachers includes courses (or modules) that focus on the methodology of teaching arts [23].

Normally, the curriculum includes one visual arts lesson per week. Design and technology are also compulsory subjects, with one weekly lesson. The visual arts textbook is designed to support creative teaching practices and encourage teachers to do more than just complete tasks from the book. The teaching process combines appreciation and discussion of professional and folklore art with creative activities. Typically, the program is taught by primary school teachers rather than visual arts specialists.

The curriculum for each grade level includes several modules covering the major areas of visual arts: Painting, Drawing, Architecture, Sculpture, Decorative and Applied Arts, Art Perception, and a module that focuses on digital artistic creativity (The ABCs of Digital Graphics) [2, 5].

The primary school program also includes tasks that involve observing the world around us – plants, animals, and people. For example, students can examine patterns on butterfly wings and then create their own butterfly designs. Children are taught to draw pictures with dots and lines and solve spatial representation tasks.

Special emphasis is placed on introducing children to famous Russian and international artworks. The textbook introduces students to paintings by Vincent van Gogh, Mikhail Vrubel, and Viktor Vasnetsov. Instead of a historical approach, the selection of artworks is organized thematically. When students learn about paints and color gradation, they study Van Gogh's Sunflowers. When exploring the concept of creating images with shapes and surfaces, they examine Evgeny Charushin's book illustrations. The textbooks also include numerous children's drawings to help students feel like a full-fledged artist. In this program, children's creativity and adult artistry are not presented as opposing concepts but coexist in a unified artistic space.

In the first grade, students are encouraged to complete small design projects, such as creating a Christmas ornament or a paper model of a house. These tasks aim to explore reality – such as observing the houses of different animals (shells, burrows, nests, cocoons) – and stimulate the

imagination by asking children to invent and represent their own unusual houses.

During training, students learn about different artistic materials and explore their expressive potential. The textbooks illustrate these topics with artworks by well-known artists, presenting different techniques and materials. The curriculum also includes lessons on color mixing and emphasizes the principles of artistic composition. Students learn the importance of making emotionally expressive images, highlighting the most striking details, and moving away from photographic realism in favor of creative interpretation.

The program also includes group projects in which different students' works are combined to create a composition. For example, an 'underwater world' project might include fish, jellyfish, and algae drawn by different children. In second grade, students learn to look closely at artwork, describe the mood and feel of paintings, and analyze the techniques used to create them. A special topic deals with the depiction of people, focusing on conveying emotions and states through various methods, both in two- and three-dimensional forms.

In the third grade, the students deal with theater. The fourth-grade program introduces children to the art of different cultures. At the beginning of the year, they learn about the artistic traditions of different Russian regions known for their folkloristic crafts. In addition, the curriculum covers the artistic heritage of Japan, Central Asia, and Ancient Greece, as well as the unique characteristics of each culture.

Primary education in Iraq lasts 6 years and is the only compulsory level of education. Some children complete their education at this level. Over time, the methods of teaching visual arts in Iraqi primary schools have evolved. Until recently, art education was often neglected, but now it is part of the curriculum in primary school [24]. The inclusion of artistic disciplines is seen as beneficial for the personal development of students.

Due to the previous neglect of arts education, Iraq has not developed a unified, recognized program for teaching the visual arts in primary schools. Several teacher manuals give general recommendations for teaching art. Methodological tools have been developed to support the teaching of art in Iraqi schools, including:

1. The 'Art Education' program includes drawing, sculpture, photography, and design instruction.
2. The 'Arts' program aims to develop students' skills in the visual arts.

3. In the 'Graphic Design' program, students learn how to create artistic projects using computer software.

4. The 'Arts and Crafts' program focuses on teaching students how to make traditional arts and crafts [14, 25].

Currently, art education programs in drawing focus on teaching students the basics of realistic drawing and proportion while encouraging their imagination through freehand drawing. Art workshops are organized in some schools (especially urban ones) where students can experiment with different artistic materials. These workshops cover a wide range of creative themes and techniques. In the craft area, students learn to work with clay, make traditional ceramic vessels, and create mosaics from small pieces of colored paper.

It is important to note that primary school students only have two hours a week for art lessons. These lessons are often seen as secondary and scheduled at the end of the school day, negatively impacting students' willingness and enthusiasm to participate in these activities.

The methods and approaches to teaching arts are diverse and depend largely on the teacher. Some lessons focus on a common theme for all students, while in others, the teacher discusses individual students' ideas and helps them implement them. Students complete many of the traditional tasks with colored chalk. However, in more advanced stages, the children also work on mosaics and decorative paintings. During the lessons, the students are introduced to Arabic art in general and Iraqi art in particular, but contact with European art is rather unusual.

In modern Iraq, secular and religious traditions coexist in drawing classes [26, 27, 29, 30]. Fine arts, particularly in the form of figurative painting or sculpture, are generally less popular in Arab countries compared to other art forms, partly due to the Islamic prohibition on the depiction of human figures and, in some interpretations, living beings in general [31–33]. Although Iraq is a predominantly Muslim country, there are no strict restrictions on visual arts subjects in schools, apart from content that goes against public morals or violates religious symbols. For example, some teachers ask students to draw pictures depicting a family picnic, moments with friends, or other everyday scenes from their lives [6].

Art education methods in many periods of Iraqi history often served as an instrument of ideological education. For example, drawing topics most often revolved around the wars that Iraq experienced. A comparison of art education in Iraq and Russia reveals significant differences due to cultural traditions. These differences reflect the two

countries' unique historical, cultural, and social contexts and shed light on how cultural traditions shape approaches to art education.

1. Influence of Cultural Traditions

Iraq greatly emphasizes preserving traditional art forms such as calligraphy and mosaics. Educational programs emphasize preserving the country's historical heritage and aim to introduce students to Iraq's rich artistic past [6].

In contrast, the Russian art education system is based on different traditions and aims to familiarize children with the culture and art of different countries, and it is not limited to the Russian heritage [5, 2].

2. Religious Influence

The religious influence on art education for children is minimal, and there are no specific sections for Orthodox art in the curriculum. Training in sacred painting is provided exclusively in specialized religious institutions, such as Sunday schools.

In Iraq, Islamic art forms such as calligraphy and geometric patterns are included in the curriculum, but the emphasis is on preserving traditional art and maintaining a link to historical heritage rather than emphasizing religious context. Researchers note that there has long been a struggle between secular and religious education in Iraq. As Al-Mohammedawi notes, "Islamic art has not yet made a definitive separation between the sacred (religious) and the secular" [24].

In modern Iraq, a clear change in attitude towards depicting human figures, especially women, can be observed in the visual arts. As Khalaaf Abdulqadhim A. Khalaaf states, «The image of Iraqi women has found expression in artworks that reflect their development as equal members of society, their spiritual and social liberation, and their achievements. These works of art form a gallery of remarkable female figures». While the depiction of women in Iraqi art dates back to the 19th century, the long-standing ban on portraying women from life has gradually been relaxed. The once abstract and idealized depictions of women (e.g., 'Holy Deities' or 'Mother Earth') have evolved. Since the late 20th century, Iraqi artists have interpreted the female form in various ways – realistically, abstractly, or symbolically – moving away from earlier restrictions. Art universities now offer courses in academic figure drawing, a further departure from traditional restrictions [28].

Modern Iraqi calligraphers are redefining traditional forms by incorporating features of contemporary graphics. For example, Arabic script often combines visual elements such as portraits of women, maps,

or other figurative representations. These works often use various techniques, including oil and acrylic painting [29].

3. Art Education Programs in Primary Schools

Until recently, there were several art education programs in Russia [4, 7]. However, a unified federal program for teaching art to younger students has been recommended. This program includes sections aimed at stimulating creative perception of works of art and developing skills in painting, drawing, sculpture, and design. At the same time, the curriculum serves as a basis for creative teachers and allows for adaptations that reflect regional characteristics as well as students' interests and needs.

There is no standardized program for teaching art in Iraq. Instead, various teaching guides are offered that focus on different areas of artistic creativity. Teachers have the flexibility to use these guides or develop their own curricula.

Discussions about developing artistic imagination and creative skills focus primarily on students in higher arts education institutions. Art educators are actively developing new teaching approaches for art students, integrating both national and Western methods and styles [31, 32]. However, the challenges of art education at the school level are rarely addressed in Iraqi academic literature. This creates a remarkable gap between general art education in schools and specialized art education in universities.

4. Theoretical and Methodological Foundations

Russia has a rich tradition of developing psychological and pedagogical frameworks in education, which also extends to teaching fine arts. Scholars have created pedagogical frameworks based on theoretical foundations, including philosophical, psychological, and pedagogical principles of arts education [1, 2, 4, 7, 18, 19].

In contrast, Iraq remains predominantly influenced by Islamic pedagogy and its basic principles [16, 21, 33].

An analysis of art education in Iraqi primary schools reveals several problems, primarily due to a lack of resources to provide students with the necessary artistic materials and tools. Teachers often point out the lack of methodological resources for teaching art, which has a negative impact on students' educational outcomes. In addition, some schools lack well-trained art professionals, which further impairs the effectiveness of these programs.

Overall, this leads to a decline in students' interest. Iraqi primary school students perceive Artistic disciplines as secondary and unimportant, undermining these programs' intended goals.

The analysis has led to the following conclusions: Cultural traditions play a crucial role in shaping the arts education of school children in Iraq and Russia. These traditions are deeply rooted in each region's history, religion, and artistic heritage and significantly influence arts education's content, methods, and objectives in both countries.

This study examined the most important aspects of primary school art education in Iraq and Russia and identified similarities and differences. In Iraq, the main goal of art education is to cultivate students' artistic thinking and creativity while using drawing and arts and crafts as a means of ideological education. In Russia, the emphasis is on fostering creative thinking, learning about art culture in a broader context, and integrating art education into the general educational framework.

However, both countries face the challenge of improving the methods of teaching art. Artistic disciplines are often seen as unimportant and secondary and receive less attention in the educational process.

Table 1

Comparison of Traditions in Primary Art Education in Iraq and Russia

Category	Russia	Iraq
Influence of Cultural Traditions	Focus on global art traditions with an emphasis on national heritage	Emphasis on national cultural traditions
Religious Influence	Secular approach to arts education in primary school.	A strong influence of Islam on pedagogy
Programs for Art Education in Primary School	There is a unified program: «Fine Arts and Artistic Labor» (authors: B.M. Nemensky et al.)	There is no unified program
Theoretical and Methodological Basis	Extensive experience in the development of psychological and pedagogical approaches; a large number of textbooks	Teachers report a lack of teaching materials and guidelines
Problems in Teaching Fine Arts in Primary School	Fine Arts in Primary School – Art is often seen as a secondary subject. Fine arts are taught by general primary school teachers and not by specialized art teachers	Lack of resources to provide students with art materials. An insufficient number of well-trained art teachers. Lack of methodological resources for teaching. Art is often perceived as a secondary subject

In Iraq, there is an urgent need for a more flexible and diverse approach to the selection of topics and techniques to broaden students' intellectual and creative development. Some primary schools in Iraq face challenges related to the lack of financial and material resources. Professional art in Iraq combines secular and religious trends with the search for modern means of expression, which inevitably affects teaching art to school children. However, modern and foreign influences must be reconciled with Iraqi cultural traditions when designing art education programs.

In Russia, we have identified a challenge for primary school art education: it is often taught by general primary school teachers, not art specialists. We believe that examining teaching practices in the arts subjects in both Iraq and Russia can contribute to pedagogy in both countries. In Russia, it is crucial to emphasize the preservation of national art forms and folk crafts. At the same time, it is important to familiarize Iraqi educators with Russian specialists' methodological and psychological-pedagogical expertise and to adapt these approaches for use in Iraqi primary schools while respecting national and cultural traditions.

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ПЕДАГОГИКА

ТРАДИЦИИ И МЕТОДЫ ПРЕПОДАВАНИЯ ИЗОБРАЗИТЕЛЬНОГО ИСКУССТВА В НАЧАЛЬНЫХ ШКОЛАХ ИРАКА И РОССИИ

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Аннотация. В статье исследуются особенности художественного образования младших школьников в Ираке и России. Цель данной статьи – выявить особенности, традиции, содержание и методы начального художественного образования в двух странах. Обучение художественным дисциплинам в России имеет давнюю традицию и опирается на педагогические и психологические разработки. В России принята единая программа по изобразительному искусству, в то время как в Ираке нет общей для всех школ программы, учителя имеют свободу в выборе программ или создании собственных. Программа художественного образования в России носит светский характер, направлена на знакомство с мировой художественной культурой, совмещает уроки творчества и знакомства с произведениями изобразительного искусства. В Ираке долгое время борются тенденции светского и религиозного образования, влияние Ислама на обучение изобразительному искусству прослеживается во многих школах, где отдается предпочтение традиционным видам искусства, таким как орнаменты и каллиграфия. Однако в сфере подготовки учителей изобразительного искусства сильны западные традиции, учителя и художники переосмысливают традиции исламского искусства с позиций современного мира, расширяя его границы и возможности.

Ключевые слова: *преподавание изобразительного искусства, традиции художественного образования России и Ирака, методы начального художественного образования, дефициты преподавания изобразительного искусства*

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ACADEMIC SATISFACTION AND ITS INFLUENCE ON THE COMPETENCE OF SCIENCE TEACHERS IN ISLAMIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KIRKUK PROVINCE

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Abstract. This article examines the extent to which academic satisfaction is related to the competence of science teachers in Islamic secondary schools in Iraq. It identifies statistical differences between the sample responses that can be attributed to the variables of gender and academic experience. The study relied on a descriptive and correlational approach. The data was collected using a questionnaire containing (58) paragraphs. The study sample consisted of (138) teachers distributed in (22) Kirkuk province – Iraq Islamic schools. The academic satisfaction indicators studied included teachers' interest in the educational goals, their sense of self-efficacy, and satisfaction with the meetings, communication, and partnership between them and the educational institution. The effects of behavioral indicators on the dimensions of academic satisfaction (salary, incentives, pedagogical supervision, professional development, school administration, working conditions, social status, and belongingness to the profession), there are no statistical differences in the competence of teacher performance attributed to the gender variable, in contrast to the existence of statistically significant differences for the academic experience variable. The results also showed that academic satisfaction is related to teachers' competence in improving their pedagogical experience, which is one of the most important factors in improving the competence of professional work.

Keywords: *academic satisfaction, science teachers, teacher competence*

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Introduction

In recent years, the topic of employee satisfaction has occupied the attention of many academics and researchers in many countries, particularly in relation to satisfaction and its relationship to key work activities. The research on this topic is due to the increasing influence of the human factor in determining modern output alongside other material factors. Satisfaction in academia depends on compatibility with values and principles.

The higher the satisfaction with working conditions, the greater the productivity gain. Many factors directly impact the teacher's performance, which plays an important role in the teacher's level of competence, whether these factors are positive or negative. Many studies have looked at this issue, but it is no secret to us as researchers of educational problems that these factors vary from one setting to another. Regardless of how we identify these factors, other factors may emerge. Academic satisfaction is one of the general factors that affect teachers' professional competence of teachers because it is an important aspect of their professional activity as it influences the effectiveness of performance in general.

However, let us look at some aspects of this background that still need to be mentioned. Motivations for career choice:

- Teachers' satisfaction with their profession depends on the reasons for their career choice and its influence on family traditions, advice from friends... etc. [1]

- Professional self-actualization: the level of satisfaction also depends on how the teacher evaluates his professional activity through a positive attitude towards the role and tasks assigned to him, which will contribute to increasing satisfaction [2].

Many studies have pointed out the importance of academic satisfaction for employees, as academic satisfaction can be considered an indicator of employees' competence rate, so appropriate measures must be taken to maintain competence in professional work, such as the study by [3], on the level of "academic satisfaction of teachers," the study by Madigan & Kim, 2021. [4] on "the concept of teachers' attrition and their intentions to resign" and Al-Abba et al.'s 2020 study [5].

The problem of the study

- The issue of academic satisfaction has long been a problem for many groups in society, especially employees. In recent years, many scholars, researchers, educators, sociologists, and psychologists have conducted much research on various topics, but academic satisfaction is relatively low. The lack of such research, especially in economically unstable countries such as Iraq, has led the researcher to choose this topic for research for many reasons. The problem of this study is to answer the following main questions: **What is the impact of academic satisfaction on the effectiveness of science teachers in Islamic secondary schools in Kirkuk province?**

- To answer the main problem question of the study, the following sub-questions need to be answered:

- What is the level of academic satisfaction among science teachers in Islamic secondary schools in Kirkuk?
- What is the level of competence of science teachers in Islamic high schools?
- What is the influence of academic satisfaction on teachers' competence?
- Are there any statistical differences between the respondents' answers to the question of teachers' competence depending on gender and academic experience?

Objectives of the study

- Determine the level of academic satisfaction of science teachers.
- Determine the level of competency of science teachers in Islamic secondary schools in Kirkuk.
- Determine the level of academic satisfaction of science teachers.
- Calculate the statistically significant differences in the teachers' level of competency by gender and academic experience.

Importance of the study

Academic satisfaction is one of the most important social and psychological issues. Many studies have shown that academic satisfaction plays an important role in teachers' professional lives regarding mental health, creating a supportive environment, and maintaining a positive attitude toward the profession.

limits of study

- limits of the study
- The academic satisfaction and competence level of the teachers represented the objective limits.
- A random sample of science teachers represented human limits.
- The spatial limits were drawn in Islamic secondary schools in the city of Kirkuk, Iraq.

Hypotheses of the study

First: "There is no statistically significant difference at the significance level (0.05) in the responses of the study sample on the competence of Islamic secondary school teachers in Kirkuk city based on the gender variable".

Second: There is no statistically significant difference at the significance level (0.05) in the responses of the studied sample regarding the competence of Islamic secondary school teachers in Kirkuk city based on the variable of scientific experience.

Conditions of the study

Academic satisfaction: Akimov defined it as an important indicator of social and psychological climate which is directly related to performance [6].

Aki Juraboev also defined it as an indicator of a person's job satisfaction [7].

Karim defined it as the result of a person's compatibility with the work environment, which results from a number of factors and personal characteristics [8].

The researcher defines it procedurally as the individual's social well-being that helps increase teacher performance competence to achieve sustainable professional development.

Who are **science teachers**? They are teachers who teach pure science subjects such as math, physics, and biology.

Performance competence: The researcher defines it procedurally: it is the personal ability to skillfully master certain professional tasks within one's own field of expertise.

Concept of academic satisfaction: In modern pedagogical and psychological theories, the concept of academic satisfaction is considered in two main directions:

- Psychological: Excellence in education is considered as an emotional state of the teacher that expresses their personal attitude towards tasks, activities, or the exercise of competencies [9, 10].

- Pedagogical: Here, satisfaction is seen in relation to the success of teaching in terms of quality and high competence in education [11, 12].

Importance of academic satisfaction

For the teacher: feeling satisfied with the teaching job helps the teacher to develop a sense of appreciation for their profession and teaches them to deal with the stresses of life in general. There are some tips that can be followed to achieve satisfaction [13].

For educational institutions, the educational systems in many countries, especially in the Arab world, force educators and researchers to observe and study teachers' professionalism levels. Many studies have dealt with the question of what a teacher should do professionally, and we realize that every year, there are new standards that teachers must consider to be satisfied with their work and profession. This includes the psychological personality of the teacher because the multitude of tasks that the educational administration is responsible for can distract the same administration from its duties, negatively impacting teacher satisfaction [14].

For the community: society determines interpersonal relationships according to trends that affect life activities. When the teacher assumes their social status, this strengthens their confidence in their personal and professional relationships. Therefore, it is important that the work done and the teacher's position are positively evaluated by society [15].

The researcher believes that professional and social justice can only be achieved through the academic satisfaction of the employee (teacher), but despite the results of studies and research that have effectively helped to define the concept of academic satisfaction and its effective role in the integration between the employee, the educational institution and society to achieve the best together.

Factors for academic satisfaction can be identified: 1) the financial benefits; 2) the employee's salary; 3) the evaluation of competency, which is determined by the teacher's individual skills; 4) the teacher's professional development; 5) social relationships among peers; 6) psychological well-being [16].

Improving teachers' academic satisfaction: In the following, we present the most important recommendations from studies and research on improving teachers' academic satisfaction: 1) improving teachers' emotional skills develops mental alertness, reduces stress, and increases social skills, which in turn affects teaching as a whole; 2) limiting working hours, working outside regular working hours and lack of rest breaks reduce teacher's well-being; 3) strengthening relationships with teachers' colleagues and management support can help them cope with work challenges and feel happy; 4) building positive relationships with students will increase teacher's satisfaction [17–22].

Earlier studies

Previous studies were divided into two axes:

1. Academic satisfaction.
2. Teacher competence.

In their works, many domestic and foreign researchers have dealt with academic satisfaction and its relationship with economic prosperity (salary, age, education, social relations, and marriage), psychological beliefs, and moods.

1. (Alkaid) study titled "Academic Satisfaction among Special Education Teachers." The study aimed to measure the level of satisfaction of special education teachers with their work, their attitudes toward working with children with disabilities, and their influence on the attitude of student teachers. The researcher used a sample that consisted of (71) teachers and (71) students. A multiple linear regression analysis

was conducted. The study concluded that fostering work satisfaction and positive attitudes among special education teachers is critical to creating a supportive environment that encourages teachers to embrace the challenges and rewards associated with working with children with disabilities. [23]

2. A study by (Abu Armila) entitled “Academic Satisfaction and its Impact on Job Immersion among Municipal Secondary School Teachers in the East Jerusalem Countryside.” The study relied on a descriptive and correlational approach to achieve the aim of the study. The study sample consisted of (255) individuals, including (99) male teachers and (156) female teachers. The study concluded that academic satisfaction affects job commitment and that there are no statistically significant differences between the mediums of responses. The sample members studied estimated the level of job commitment based on the gender variable, while the study indicates that there are statistically significant differences based on the years of experience variable.” [24]

3. The study by (Sahito & Vaisanen) titled “Literature Review on the Academic Satisfaction of Teachers in Developing Countries.” The studies were conducted in (21) countries in Asia and Africa. The study aimed to investigate various relevant factors. The study concluded that the most important factors influencing teachers’ academic satisfaction are favorable working conditions, opportunities for advancement, fair compensation, support from school administration, colleagues and the community, teacher empowerment, and friendships. [25]

4. Bechara’s study entitled “Professional Satisfaction of Urban and Rural Secondary School Teachers in Russia” aimed to determine teachers’ job satisfaction in rural and urban schools. Experimental methods were used. The study found that teachers in urban areas are more satisfied than teachers in rural areas. Their satisfaction is related to the school administration’s recognition of teachers’ efforts to improve their professional performance and ability to maintain friendly relationships at work. The study also found that teachers in rural areas desire to change jobs to obtain a position with higher status and better pay, but they do not desire professional development or continuing education. [26]

5. The study by (Abdul Khaliq and Hassania) titled “Educational Beliefs and their Role in Achieving the Competence of Primary Education Teachers.” According to the degree variable, the study aimed to determine psychological flexibility and its relationship with self-efficacy and job satisfaction among kindergarten teachers in schools in

Sulaymaniyah. The researcher used the descriptive method, and the study included (250) teachers. The study found that the level of self-efficacy among kindergarten teachers was generally high, and there was a statistically significant direct relationship between psychological flexibility and self-efficacy among kindergarten teachers. [27]

General comment on previous studies: Previous studies have shown that teachers' satisfaction with their work has a significant impact on their performance and on the achievement of educational goals in schools. Previous research has also looked at the issue of teacher satisfaction and its relationship to working conditions in schools and teacher characteristics. It is worth mentioning that another study has shown the importance of teachers' satisfaction with general working conditions in schools and teachers' characteristics. These studies can help to improve our understanding of the relationship between academic satisfaction and the effectiveness of science department teachers in Islamic secondary schools.

Research methodology and procedures

Research methodology: The study was conducted using the descriptive-relational method.

Community of the research: the study population consisted of secondary school teachers in the schools of Kirkuk City, with a total number of (680) teachers distributed among the Islamic secondary schools in Iraq. The sample was randomly selected to suit the nature and objectives of the study. The sample size was (138) teachers, including (96) male teachers and (42) female teachers.

The questionnaire was used as a tool for data collection and consisted of two parts: the first included personal information and the second included two axes: the first – academic satisfaction, which included (46) items divided into (7) dimensions: the first dimension: “school administration” and included (8) items. Second: “Working conditions and nature of work” comprised (6) items. Third: “Salary and incentives” comprised (8) items. Fourth: “Social status” comprised (5) items. Fifth: “Professional development” comprised (8) items. Sixth: “Pedagogical support” with (4) items, and seventh: “Belonging to the profession” with (7) items. The second axis – teacher competence, which comprised (12) items.

Experimental procedure

1. Apparent validity: The instrument was presented to (12) specialized reviewers, and some items were changed and deleted, while the agreement rate for the questionnaire items reached (85%).

2. Internal consistency: The significance of the correlation coefficient values was confirmed as the internal consistency of the academic satisfaction axis (0.702) and the teacher competence axis (0.812) was achieved.

Reliability of the instrument: After calculating the Cronbach's alpha coefficient, it was found that its value is (0.80). Thus, the study instrument has high validity and reliability, and its results can be considered reliable in the present study.

Study results and discussion

– **To answer the first question**, “What is the level of academic satisfaction among science teachers in Islamic secondary schools in Kirkuk?” the arithmetic mean and relative weight of the dimensions of academic satisfaction were calculated, and the rank of each dimension of the axis was determined:

Table 1
Arithmetic mean and relative weight of the dimensions of academic satisfaction

No	Dimensions	No. Items	means	Std. deviation	Relative weight	Direction of opinion	Rank
1	School administration	8	2.893	0.844	2.90	Medium	4
2	Working conditions and type of work	6	2.924	0.897	2.83	Medium	3
3	Salary and Incentives	8	1.980	0.922	1.94	Low	7
4	Social status	5	3.055	0.986	3.06	Medium	2
5	Professional development	8	2.714	1.037	2.71	Medium	5
6	Educational Supervision	4	2.413	0.930	2.41	Low	6
7	Belonging to the profession	7	3.105	0.958	3.11	Medium	1
Academic Satisfaction axis		46	2.759	0.975	2.71	Medium	

Table 1 shows that the mean dimensions of the first axis, “*Academic satisfaction*,” ranged between (1.980–3.105), with the dimension “*Belonging to the profession*” ranking first with a relative weight of (3.105) and receiving a “medium” rating, followed by the dimension “*Social status*” with a relative weight of (3.055), while the dimension “*Working conditions and type of work*” ranked third with a relative weight of (2.924). The dimension “*Educational Supervision*” was in penultimate place with a rating of “low” and a relative weighting of (2.413) and was mentioned last after the dimension “*Salary and incentives*” with a relative weighting of (1.980). The overall mean for the “*Academic satisfaction*” axis was (2.759) with a rating of “medium.” We also note the teachers’ academic dissatisfaction estimates in the two dimensions (6, 7).

These are two important things indirectly: first, the indirect positive effect of pedagogical supervisors on the performance of teachers in school. Therefore, it is necessary to look into this matter to understand the reasons and turn their role from observer and scold to guide and mentor [28, 29].

The second problem is about salary and incentives. This is a chronic problem that continues to plague teachers at all levels. The institutions with the decision-making power have not been able to develop a solution to this problem despite all the recommendations of studies and conferences that have advocated it [30, 31].

– **To answer the second question**, which included “What is the level of competence of science teachers in Islamic secondary schools?” the means and deviations were calculated for the second axis, “competence of teachers,” and arranged according to the arithmetic mean.

Table 2

Arithmetic means and relative weight of my teacher’s competency axis

No	Dimensions	No. Items	means	Std. deviation	Relative weight	Direction of opinion
1	I feel comfortable while working at school	3.522	0.961	2.55	High	9
2	I work actively in the most difficult circumstances	3.652	0.994	2.65	High	8
3	I cooperate with my coworkers	3.862	0.968	2.80	High	2
4	I suffer from work stress at school	3.775	0.904	2.74	High	6
5	Assigning me additional work at school	3.797	0.921	2.75	High	4
6	I feel comfortable while working intensely	1.630	0.829	1.18	Low	12
7	I am flexible when dealing with my colleagues	3.884	0.997	2.81	High	1
8	I devote myself to teaching when I work	3.783	1.030	2.74	High	5
9	I don’t think about external topics while teaching	3.471	0.976	2.52	High	10
10	I prefer my schoolwork to my personal tasks	3.841	1.013	2.78	High	3
11	I feel excited while performing my duties as a teacher	3.761	0.993	2.73	High	7
12	I feel happy when I work intensely	2.297	0.977	1.66	Low	11
Teacher competency axis		3.440	0.964	2.49	High	

From Table 2 the above table, we note that the 7th paragraph, “*I am flexible in dealing with my colleagues*,” ranked first with an average of (3.884) and a grade of “high,” while the paragraph “*I cooperate with my colleagues at work*” ranked second with an average of (3.862) and also with a “high” as well rating, and the paragraph “*I prefer my school work to my personal tasks*” ranked third with an average of (3.841).

As for the last three paragraphs, their arithmetic averages ranged from (1.630–3.471), where the paragraph “*I don’t think about any external topic while teaching*” ranked tenth, and the paragraph “*I feel happy when I work intensely*” ranked eleventh, followed by the paragraph “*I feel comfortable while working intensely*” ranked last.

The arithmetic mean of the teacher competence axis was (3.440) with a grade of “high,” which shows the degree of impact of the living conditions in the teacher’s environment on performance competence at school. Burdening the teacher with tasks other than teaching, such as providing pedagogical support, supervising extracurricular activities or acting as a librarian ... etc., would lead to professional anxiety, which would have a negative impact on the teacher’s performance competence in the classroom: [32]

To answer the third question, “What is the influence of academic satisfaction on teachers’ competence?” Pearson’s correlation coefficient was calculated to determine the relationship between the dimensions of the independent variable and the dependent variable, and stepwise multiple linear regression was analyzed to determine and rank the dimensions of the first axis, “Academic satisfaction,” that have the greatest influence on teachers’ competence.

Table 3
Progressive Multiple Linear Regression Analysis of Academic Satisfaction Axis Dimensions

Dimensions of the first axis, “Academic Satisfaction”	Estimated Parameters (B)	T-test		F-test		R	R2
		Value	Sig	Value	Sig		
Fixed Value	0.677	5.687	0.000	433.667	0.000	0.919	0.844
1. Salary and Incentives	0.366	5.253	0.033				
2. Educational Supervision	0.398	4.651	0.000				
3. Vocational development	0.452	3.728	0.000				
4. School administration	0.446	3.101	0.000				
5. Working conditions and nature of work	0.483	2.158	0.000				
6. Social status	0.570	1.975	0.000				
7. Belonging to the profession	0.093	0.397	0.024				

The above table shows that teachers’ academic satisfaction (84%), represented by the seven dimensions addressed in the present study, impacts teachers’ competence level. The remaining value (16%) may be due to other factors that probably influence the teachers’ level of professional competence but are not listed in the scale. The value of (F) probability reached (0.000), which means that the scale used to predict the possible outcomes in this study is valid.

Based on this result, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative (moral hypothesis) hypothesis, which states that “there is an influence on teachers’ competence for each of the dimensions of academic satisfaction.” This result is logical because the more satisfied teachers are with their salary and rewards, their belonging to the profession, ...etc., the more their competence increases. This satisfaction is reflected in the quality of teaching in academic and Islamic educational institutions. This result is consistent with the study (Ali, 2009; J. Liu, 2021) [33. 34: 825]

– To answer the fourth question, which related to the hypotheses of the study, the “T-test” for independent samples was used:

1. The first hypothesis: “There is no statistically significant difference at the significance level (0.05) in the responses of the study sample regarding the competence of Islamic secondary school teachers in Kirkuk due to the gender variable.”

Table 4

T-Test data on teacher competence according to the gender variable

Teacher competence	Frequency	Mean	Standard deviation	T-test	F-test	level of sig.
Male	96	43.26	4.133	-1.114	0.986	0.323
Female	42	44.07	3.432	-1.198		

* A value of T at (0.05), and a degree of freedom (136) is = (1.645).

From the data in Table 4, the mean for males (43.26) with a standard deviation of (4.133) is very similar to the mean for females (44.07) with a standard deviation of (3.432); since the portability value (Sig) is (0.323), which is greater than the significance level (0.05), the variance is the same, and therefore, there are no statistically significant differences in the estimates of the sample’s responses related to the teachers’ competence based on the gender variable, and the researcher attributed this result to the fact that both genders were in the same institutional environment with a system without discrimination, and this result was consistent with the study: (Machado-Taylor et al, 2014; Koca et al, 2023). [35, 36]

1. The second hypothesis: “There is no statistically significant difference at the significance level (0.05) in the responses of the study sample on the competence of Islamic secondary school teachers in Kirkuk due to the variable of scientific experience.”

To test the validity of the second hypothesis, the one-way test of variance and Levene’s test were used to measure the homogeneity between the groups, and the results were as follows:

Table 5

Results of the “Univariate Test” on the competence of teachers based on scientific experience

Teacher Competency variable	Sum of squares	Degree of freedom	Mean squares	Levene’s test		F-test	level of significance
					(Sig)		
Variation between groups	59.685	2	29.84	0.343	0,710	9.185	0.002
Variance within groups	215.64	135	107.82				
Totally	167.505	137					

In Table 5, homogeneity between groups was measured by the fibrin value (0.710), which is greater than (0.05), indicating that differences were obtained between groups. The probability value of (ANOVA) test is (0.002), which is less than (0.05), indicating that there are statistically significant differences between the samples’ responses in terms of the competence of teacher performance based on the science experience variable.

In favor of each category of these differences, Tukey’s test was used to make comparisons, as can be seen in the following table:

Table 6

Results of Tukey-test post-comparisons for differences in teacher competence based on the science experience variable

Categories	Comparison			
	Average Categories	Less than 5 years	From 5 to 10	More than 10
Less than 5 years	38,50	—	\	\
From 5 to 10	39,78	\	—	*
More than 10	49.11	\	*	—

* The level of statistical significance is at (0.05), but it isn’t significant at (0.05).

Table 6 shows that there are statistically significant differences in the category of those with science experience (more than 10 years) and the category of those with science experience (5 to 10 years) in favor of the category (more than 10 years) in terms of the highest mean of (49.11). The researcher believes that this result is probably because teachers with more than 10 years of experience have a higher competence in professional performance than their colleagues due to the cumulative experience they have gained with the different environmental conditions surrounding them.

Results and Interpretation

A study on the correlation between academic satisfaction and the competence of science teachers in Islamic secondary schools revealed a positive influence of academic satisfaction on teacher effectiveness. The

study found that higher levels of academic satisfaction among teachers were associated with several positive outcomes:

First, it led to higher levels of interest and commitment to educational goals. More academically satisfied teachers showed a stronger commitment to achieving intended learning goals.

Second, it increases teachers' sense of self-efficacy. When teachers were more satisfied with their academic roles and responsibilities, their confidence in their own ability to work effectively increased.

Third, the study showed that the decisions made by educational institutions to improve teacher satisfaction had a positive impact. The actions taken to improve job satisfaction contributed to better academic fulfillment among teaching staff.

In addition, the study identified improved communication and cooperation – both between teachers and school administrators and between schools and universities – as another factor enabling higher teacher competence. However, the study also found that discussions about weaknesses between managers and teachers were often counterproductive. This was attributed to managers lacking appropriate communication styles and approaches that would make such feedback acceptable and constructive for teachers. The study highlights that fostering mutual respect between managers and teachers is crucial to instilling a positive attitude towards the teaching profession and career progression.

Therefore, we can discuss several important factors that affect teachers' job satisfaction and competence:

Salaries and extra work: this part points out that many teachers receive salaries that are below the subsistence level, forcing them to take on extra work after school to meet their financial needs. The lack of adequate remuneration is cited as a major problem.

Inappropriate specialization: Another recurring problem is the fact that teachers are not allowed to teach exclusively in their area of specialization. Sometimes, teachers have to teach subjects not part of their specialty, e.g., a math teacher also has to teach science. This mismatch between qualifications and assigned subjects is cited as an obstacle.

Classroom resources: The paragraph also highlights the importance of adequately equipping classrooms with the necessary resources, such as lighting, furniture, and teaching aids. The lack of adequate classroom facilities is said to have a negative impact on teachers' academic satisfaction and the overall working environment.

Intrinsic factors of the profession: ultimately, this paragraph argues that teacher satisfaction is essentially related to the teaching profession itself. It suggests that the profession should provide material, moral, and psychological stability to teachers, especially trainee teachers. The material component, in particular, is highlighted as crucial to teacher performance and effectiveness.

In summary, the most important factors affecting teacher satisfaction and competence appear to be adequate fringe benefits, appropriate teaching tasks and specialization, sufficient teaching resources, and stability and fulfillment from the teaching profession itself. Addressing these elements could help to increase teachers' job satisfaction and thus improve their overall performance.

Conclusion

The studies on teachers' academic satisfaction underline its crucial importance for the education sector. Recent research has shown that high levels of academic satisfaction among teachers play a crucial role in improving the overall quality of education and the safety and well-being of the educational environment. Furthermore, the studies show that increasing teachers' academic satisfaction directly improves their competence and effectiveness in academics and teaching. This, in turn, benefits the educational process as a whole.

These findings highlight the need for education stakeholders, including administrators and policymakers, to prioritize strategies and actions to promote teacher academic satisfaction. By addressing the key factors that influence teacher satisfaction, the education system can significantly improve the quality of teaching and student outcomes.

Recommendations for research

The following are some key recommendations for improving the academic satisfaction and professional competence of teachers in Islamic secondary schools:

- Provide a positive working environment by creating a supportive, cooperative, and nurturing working climate for teachers.
- Address any issues related to physical working conditions, resources, and facilities.
- Strengthen collaboration between teachers and school administrators by fostering open communication and trust between teachers and school administrators and involving teachers in the decision-making and educational planning process.
- Provide ongoing professional development opportunities by conducting regular in-service training programs to improve teachers'

instructional skills and abilities and by encouraging and supporting teachers' professional growth and learning.

- Provide emotional and psychological support by offering counseling and wellness services for teachers' emotional needs and creating a culture where teachers' contributions are valued and recognized.

- Improve material and moral rewards by reviewing and improving teacher compensation and various benefits and implementing non-monetary recognition and appreciation programs.

- Strengthen pedagogical supervision and guidance by ensuring that pedagogical supervisors provide tailored professional development programs and actively involve teachers in designing and implementing these programs.

If these recommendations are implemented, Islamic secondary schools can work towards improving teachers' academic satisfaction and professional competence. This will help improve the overall quality of education and create a more effective and conducive learning environment for students.

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АКАДЕМИЧЕСКОЕ УДОВЛЕТВОРЕНИЕ И ЕЕ ВЛИЯНИЕ НА КОМПЕТЕНТНОСТЬ УЧИТЕЛЕЙ ЕСТЕСТВЕННЫХ НАУК В ИСЛАМСКИХ СРЕДНИХ ШКОЛАХ ПРОВИНЦИИ КИРКУК

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Аннотация. В данной статье рассматривается исследование степени, в которой академическая удовлетворенность связана с компетентностью преподавателей научных предметов в исламских средних школах в Ираке, и выявление статистических различий между ответами выборки, относящимися к гендерной переменной и научному опыту. Исследование опиралось на описательный и корреляционный подход, и данные были собраны с использованием анкеты, которая включала (58) пунктов. Выборка исследования составляла (138) учителей, распределенных по (22) исламским школам в провинции Киркук – Ирак. Изучаемые показатели академической удовлетворенности включали интерес учителей к образовательным целям, их чувство самооэффективности, удовлетворенность встречами, общением и партнерством между ними, с одной стороны, и учебным заведением - с другой. Влияние поведенческих показателей на измерения академической удовлетворенности (заработная плата, стимулы, образовательный надзор, профессиональное развитие, управление школой, условия труда, социальный статус и принадлежность к профессии). Исследование показало, что нет статистических различий в отношении компетентности эффективности учителей, отнесенной к гендерной переменной, в сравнении с наличием статистически значимых различий для переменной научного опыта, и результаты также показали, что академическая удовлетворенность связана с компетентностью учителей в улучшении их образовательного опыта, что является одним из наиболее важных факторов, ответственных за повышение компетентности профессиональной работы.

Ключевые слова: *Академическая удовлетворенность, Учителей естественных наук, Компетентность учителей*

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ECOPSYCHOLOGICAL MODEL OF TEACHER AGENCY FORMATION IN THE EDUCATIONAL LANDSCAPE

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Abstract. According to the ecopsychological model, the formation of personal agency in learners' educational activities comprises seven interrelated stages, mathematically determined by the coefficients of coherence and integrity.

Observations of professionally significant teachers' qualities were carried out during advanced training courses from 2021 to 2023 in Samara. The studied profile of teachers' agency reflects the extent to which each stage of personal agency formation is manifested, the coherence between these stages, and the process of interiorization/exteriorization of professional competencies. Correlations were found between the professionals' educational level, age, and the extent of each stage of personal agency formation. Teachers with high and low coherence differ significantly in the communicative level of universal learning actions.

The extent of the stages of personal agency is associated with teachers' coherence indicators, which exhibit a complex factor structure: four factors for each type of integrity.

Keywords: *ecopsychological paradigm, pedagogical environment, stages of agency formation, agency profile, coherence and integrity, interiorization, exteriorization*

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Introduction

The modernization of education, including the withdrawal from the Bologna system, requires a new, in-depth look at the vocational training of professionals and the continuity of the training program and retraining in general. The question of “the psychological and pedagogical conditions and methods to transform the anthropocentric attitude of man

towards the natural and socio-cultural environment and the nature of man himself into an ecocentric one” [1, p. 124] remains open. “...The relevance of ecological-psychological research is determined by the theoretical and practical necessity of the methodological use of the “individual-environment” relationship as a starting condition for the study of a person’s mental development in the context of his interactions with the environment, his mental processes, states and, of course, environmental consciousness” [1, p. 125]. The formation of participants’ agency in the pedagogical environment as a result of pedagogical interaction is considered in the works of V. Panov [2–4], L. Mitina [5; 6], E. Kolesnikova [7–9], I. Plaksina [3, 4, 10], R. Sunnatova [11], M. Selezneva [11] and others [12–14].

According to the concept of V. Panov, the ‘human-environment’ system provides a number of opportunities for a particular person to achieve individuality in their mental processes, states, and consciousness. Thus, it acts as a unique environment for the development (gain) of individuality, which, of course, cannot be reduced only to the individual characteristics of a person and/or only to external environmental objects and socio-cultural conditions. The environment for the development of individuality in this sense should have a system-generative character, the system-forming core of which is the external and internal (mental) activity of a person carried out by a particular individual or community” [2, p. 278]. The role of subject-collaborative and subject-generative forms of interaction for the self-organization of participants in the educational process has already been pointed out [2; 8; 15]. The purposeful organization of a teacher’s evolving, pedagogical, creative educational environment determines students’ interiorization of new knowledge and skills with subsequent exteriorization into educational activities and self-actualization [16, p. 136]. The problem area becomes an investigation of the structure of teachers’ agency [17, p. 59] and the coherence and integrity of the stages of agency formation [18; 19, p. 6]. The novelty of the study is the attempt to determine the role of coherence in the structure of a teacher’s agency development, as well as the use of coherence indicators as an indicator of respondents’ sincerity and social desirability.

Aim of the study: To investigate the coherence and integrity of the stages of formation of teachers’ agency in the pedagogical environment.

Research objectives:

1) Analyze the approaches to the development of participants’ agency in the pedagogical environment;

- 2) Explore the characteristics of the formation of teachers' agency;
- 3) Determine the indicators of coherence and integrity of the stages of the development of teachers' agency and the role of coherence in the structure of the agency development of participants in the educational environment;
- 4) To study the characteristics of teachers with high and low coherence of stages of agency formation;
- 5) To study the characteristics of teachers with low, medium, and high integrity and the factors determining them.

Research hypothesis: The indicators of coherence and integrity in the stages of teachers' agency formation reflect the processes of interiorization and exteriorization of professional competencies in the pedagogical environment.

Research methods and methodology: Following the aim and objectives, a methodological apparatus was used that includes general scientific research methods:

- Scientific method;
- Systems analysis;
- Empirical method;
- Test method;
- Method for analyzing the data obtained;
- Methods of mathematical statistics (cluster analysis, non-parametric correlation analysis of Tau-Kendall, factor analysis).

Methodology of research: Adult Stages of Agency Formation Questionnaire (AAFQ) by A. Kaptssov, V. Panov [12] (Appendix 1).

Ecopsychological paradigm. “The ecopsychological model of the formation of agency allows us to consider the development of agency as an ontological process, the stages of which are characteristic of the development of any subject action <...> for the formation and analysis of universal and universal and meta competences in higher education and universal learning actions in general education” [18, p. 93]. The parallel-sequential model of agency formation combines the cognitive-regulatory abilities of certain levels of universal learning actions (hereinafter referred to as ULA) and types of activities with types of interaction between participants in the educational environment [19, p. 74]. From the perspective of the ecopsychological approach of V. Panov, “the development of agency is considered as <...> within the ontological continuum ‘subject – spontaneous activity – a subject of productive action’” [11, p. 9].

Previous studies have confirmed the role of integrity and coherence in testing the ecopsychological model in the educational process [18, p. 20]. “The importance of these characteristics lies in the fact that, firstly, they allow a holistic assessment of the stages of the formation of agency as a psychological system, and secondly, they identify individual characteristics of the formation of agency in different students and different educational situations” [18, p. 93]. “The integrity of a psychological system in relative units can be defined as the ratio between the sum of coherence indicators and the maximum value of coherence” [20, p. 6], which characterizes “the level of monolithicity/disunity of the stages of performing educational actions within the system<...> in the range from 0 to 1” [18, p. 96]. The interiorization of ULAs relevant to the stages of agency formation is crucial for the professional training of teachers. Subsequent exteriorization in practical pedagogical activity is reflected in students’ educational outcomes and creative professional self-realization. Low indicators of the integrity of the system are characterized in the process of interiorization – by external motivation and difficulties in the training of teachers themselves; in the process of exteriorization – problems of adaptation to the conditions of a specific pedagogical environment, professional crises, and the risk of emotional burnout. “Empirical studies of the relationship between learning success and the coefficient of engagement have shown that the latter has an optimal value in the range from 0.3 to 0.6” in the group of students [18, p. 93].

The coefficient of coherence of the stages of agency formation in the range from 0 to 1 makes it possible to determine the sincerity/social desirability of the respondents’ answers at extremely low or high indicators. The maximum values of coherence indicators (from 0.9 to 1) indicate the impossibility of developing agency qualities and professional skills due to extreme pedantry.

In the context of psychological development, the following seven stages of agency – from a motivated individual to a creative innovator – offer a nuanced framework for understanding how personal initiative, critical thinking, and self-directed behavior evolve over time:

1. Motivated Individual

- Also referred to as the stage of “subject of need.”
- Characterized by the emergence of internal motivation (“I want”).
- The person actively seeks ways to fulfill their needs and goals, demonstrating initial self-driven behavior.

2. Observer

- Focuses on cognitive development: the ability to watch, perceive, and process information about one's own activities and the environment.
- Observation and reflection are present, but active change or critique might be limited.

3. Apprentice

- The individual follows instructions or established rules exactly, often with minimal personal interpretation or innovation.
- There is little to no critical assessment of tasks; the main goal is to complete activities as demonstrated or instructed.

4. Learner

- Engages in typical learning activities, gaining knowledge and skills.
- However, the person struggles to see or correct their own mistakes independently without external guidance.

5. Critic

- Develops the ability to evaluate and critically reflect on personal performance and outcomes.
- Involves self-awareness of mistakes, recognition of areas for improvement, and active problem-solving.

6. Master

- Reaches a high level of skill and competence, executing tasks with quality and consistency.
- Able to self-monitor and self-correct effectively, refining their own expertise.

7. Creator

- Displays creative potential and innovation, going beyond mastered tasks to produce new ideas, approaches, or solutions.
- Represents the highest or most autonomous extent of agency, fully integrating creativity, self-reflection, and initiative.

Presentation of the main results of the study. The teacher agency formation stages were studied using the AAFQ by A. Kaptsov and V. Panov [12] (Appendix 1). One hundred forty-nine teachers ($M = 43.83$; $Sd = 34.68$; 95.30% women) of advanced training courses of the Center for Educational Development of the Samara Urban District took part in the observation on various topics in 2021–2023 (hereinafter Course 1 and Course 2). For secondary processing of the study data, cluster analysis (k-means method) in the STATISTICA 10.0 package, non-parametric correlation analysis according to Kendall's Tau, and

factor analysis (principal component method with orthogonal varimax rotation) were used.

The observation of the pedagogical staff revealed an evolving (emergent) agency in most stages of the formation. Moreover, it can be assumed that 45.6% of teachers have formed the stage of internal motivation (Motivated individual) at the personal level of universal learning actions, which is characterized by exploratory activity (see Fig. 1). V. Panov emphasizes: “The psyche presents itself in different forms of being (emerging, established and objectified/alienated) ... the necessary principle for the analysis of the stages of the formation of psychic reality must be the principle of the unity of interiorization and exteriorization” [21, p. 18].

An insufficiently developed cognitive level of universal learning actions (ULAs) is observed in 38.9% of teachers at the ‘observer’ stage and in 71.8% at the ‘apprentice’ stage (Fig. 1). The situational and superficial nature of their perceptual activity as well as the difficulties in processing and analyzing information are accompanied by an extremely low level of reproductive activity and goal-directed behavior (Fig. 1).

As V. Panov points out, “A subject who reproduces the required sample action through imitation does so by exteriorizing the ‘image’ (the perceptual model) of the sample action in the form of imitation, but without understanding the meaning of the reproduced action or possessing the ability to monitor its correctness independently. At this stage, the perceptual model of the exemplar action, which was formed and interiorized in the previous stage, becomes subjective—that is, it is transformed into an internal subjective mechanism for the imitative execution of the exemplar action” [11, p. 25].

The communicative level of ULAs is closely related to the type of interaction between participants in the educational environment and their effectiveness in the context of a particular educational situation. V. Panov, following A. Asmolov points out that communication and “...joint educational activities create a meaningful, motivating basis for the student’s transition from a practical to a cognitive attitude towards the world and are the basis for the formation of conscious self-regulation and agency” [11, p. 23]. A deficit at the communicative level of ULAs is identified by 61.8% of respondents at the ‘learner’ stage of agency formation and by 79.9% of teachers at the ‘critic’ stage (Fig. 1). Thus, ineffectively organized interaction determines low regularity and productivity of pedagogical and regulatory activity, insufficient independence, difficulties in self-analysis and correction of correct

execution/optimization of actions in the pedagogical and professional sphere. In pedagogical activity, the behavior of professionals can be manifested by agency, bias, and conflict.

A deficit in the regulatory level of ULAs is noted by 46.3% of respondents at the ‘master’ stage, which defines the limited abilities of “planning, predicting, controlling, correcting, and evaluating” [11, p. 23] the pedagogical environment (Fig. 1).

The low personal level of ULAs at the ‘creator’ stage was indicated by 49% of teachers (Fig. 1), which manifests itself in insufficient motivational activity, difficulties in self-determination, self-education, emphasis on the moral aspect of behavior (according to V. Panov) and self-actualization.

These results confirm the previously discovered ontological relationship between the stages of formation of agency with increasing impact [22, 23]: an insufficiently formed personal level of ULAs was noted by 21.5% of respondents at the ‘motivated individual’ stage and by 49% at the ‘creator’ stage.

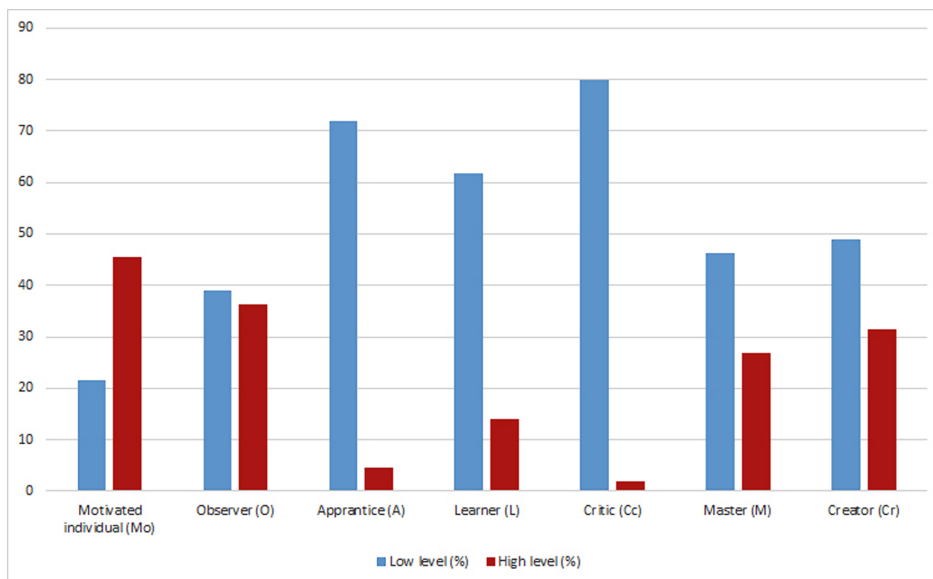


Fig. 1. Extent to which the stages of teacher agency are formed

In the group studied, a correlation was found between the level of teacher training and the extent to which the stages of agency are formed. Among teachers with secondary vocational education (22.8% of the total sample), there is an inverse relationship between the indicators of the ‘motivated individual’ stage ($\tau = -0.18$ at $p < 0.05$) and the ‘creator’ stage ($\tau = -0.11$ at $p < 0.05$). The minimal level of teachers’ professional

training correlates with low motivation and creative self-actualization and with the situational nature of their expression among the respondents.

Among the teachers of course 1 with secondary vocational education, there is a direct correlation with the level of 'learner' stage formation ($\tau = 0.242$ at $p < 0.05$) and an inverse correlation with the coherence indicators of the level of 'learner' ($\tau = -0.32$ at $p < 0.05$) and 'learner' ($\tau = -0.22$ at $p < 0.05$) stages formation with other stages. These results confirm those previously found: earlier stages' cognitive-regulatory abilities correlate with later stages' cognitive-regulatory abilities [22, p. 67], and the fragmentation of cognitive and communicative ULAs is characterized by insufficient internal motivation and learning activity.

For a more in-depth analysis of the results obtained, the subjects in each of the two groups of teachers (courses 1 and 2) were divided into groups according to the type of extent of agency formation in different stages (low, medium, and high indicators) using a cluster analysis.

No significant correlations with coherence indicators were found among course 1 and 2 teachers with low indicators of agency (70 individuals, 46%), and correlations with education and age have already been described [17, p. 59].

For respondents with an average extent of agency formation in course 1 (16 individuals, 22.5%), there is a correlation between age and the extent of the 'apprentice' stage ($\tau = 0.54$, $p < 0.05$) and the coherence indicators between the 'apprentice' stage and other stages ($\tau = 0.47$, $p < 0.05$). For course 2 participants (26 individuals, 32%), there is a correlation with the extent of the 'apprentice' stage formation ($\tau = 0.35$, $p < 0.05$) and with the coherence indicators of the 'motivated individual' ($\tau = -0.36$, $p < 0.05$) and 'apprentice' ($\tau = -0.30$, $p < 0.05$) stages in relation to the other stages (Table 1).

That is, the younger the professional is, the more effectively the cognitive level of universal learning actions (ULAs) is developed in course 1 participants, while both the personal and cognitive levels of ULAs are more effectively developed in course 2 participants.

Teachers with high indicators of the extent to which the stages of agency are formed in course 1 (28 people, 39.4%) are characterized by an inverse relationship between secondary vocational training and the expression of the 'motivated individual' stage ($\tau = -0.27$ at $p < 0.05$), indicators of the coherence of the 'apprentice' stage ($\tau = -0.42$ at $p < 0.05$) and the 'learner' stage ($\tau = -0.33$ at $p < 0.05$) with other stages and course 2 (12 people, 14.8%) – an inverse relationship between

secondary vocational education and the extent of the ‘apprentice’ stage ($\tau = -0.46$ at $p < 0.05$). The teachers of Course 1 with a minimum level of professional training are characterized by low motivation, personal activity, and insufficient development of cognitive and communicative levels of learning skills, which explains the reluctance and difficulties in the learning process. Course 2 teachers with initial professional training, on the other hand, have a better command of the cognitive level of pedagogical skills and reproductive activity, which confirms the need for a system of adaptation of young professionals and patronage of those already established through the modernization of the educational environment in institutions.

Table 1

Indicators of the correlation between the medium and high extent of teachers’ stages of agency formation with their level of education, their age, and their coherence (Cn) to other stages (Kendall’s correlation coefficient τ at $p < 0.05$)

Correlations	Course 1				Course 2				
	Mo	A	CnA	CnL	Mo	A	M	CnMo	CnA
Medium level of the extent to which the stages of the agency are formed									
Age		0,54	0,47			0,35		–0,36	–0,30
High level of the extent to which the stages of the agency are formed									
Education	–0,27		–0,42	–0,33		–0,46			
Age					–0,66		–0,43		

Note: Mo – ‘motivated individual’ stage, A – ‘apprentice’ stage, M – ‘master’ stage, CnMo – coherence of the ‘motivated individual’ stage with other stages, CnA – coherence of the stage ‘apprentice’ with other stages of agency, CnL – coherence of the ‘learner’ stage with other stages.

Figure 2 shows the distribution of indicators of the extent of each stage of agency formation of teachers of low (cluster 2), medium (cluster 3), and high (cluster 1) type. Noteworthy is the fact that the indicators of agency at the stages of ‘apprentice,’ ‘learner,’ and ‘critic’ are lower for teachers of course 1 of the medium type than for teachers with a low type of indicators of agency. Probably, the crisis of the cognitive and communicative level of ULA and the insufficient level of reproductive, pedagogical, and external regulatory activities hinder the formation of agency in general (Fig. 2).

For teachers in course 2 with high levels of agency (12 people, 14.8%), there is an inverse relationship between age and the extent to which the ‘motivated individual’ ($\tau = -0.66$ at $p < 0.05$) and ‘master’ ($\tau = -0.43$ at $p < 0.05$) stages are formed. The youth and inexperience of the specialists are associated with a low level of search and internal

regulation activities and a deficit in personal and regulatory control levels.

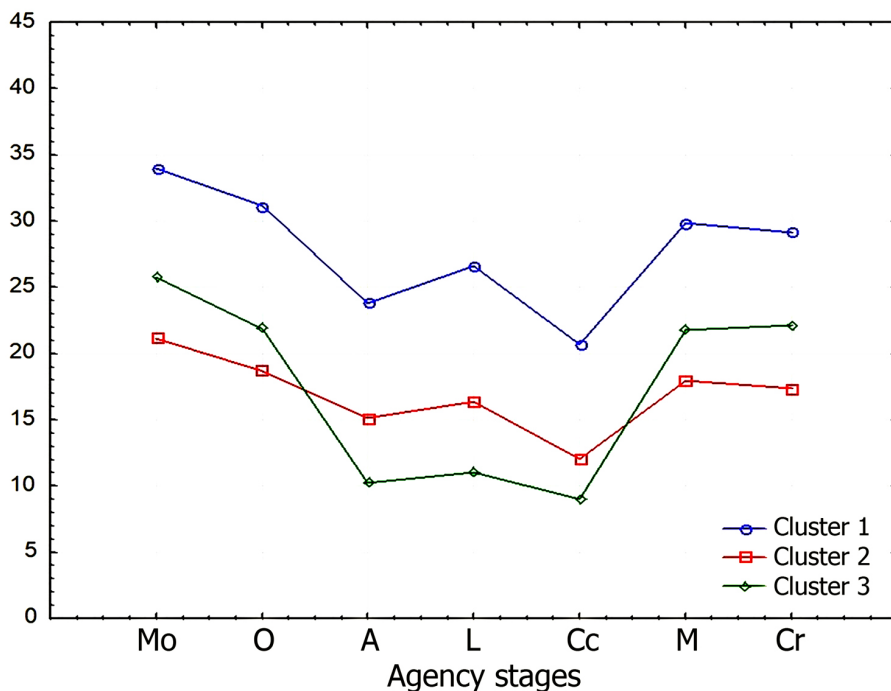


Fig. 2. Extent to which the stages of agency are formed in teachers of the low (cluster 2), medium (cluster 3), and high (cluster 1) type of course 1

Cluster analysis of the coherence of the stages of agency formation with other stages revealed significant differences between the groups with low and high coherence scores. High coherence indicators could describe the formation of necessary cognitive-regulatory skills and the interiorization of educational competencies with subsequent exteriorization into educational and occupational activities. Low coherence scores could explain difficulties in both interiorization and exteriorization. Teachers with high and low coherence of the stages' motivated individual' ($U = 114.50$ at $p < 0.05$), 'learner' ($U = 124.50$ at $p < 0.05$), and 'critic' ($U = 118.00$ at $p < 0.05$) differ significantly from the other stages of agency. The insufficient development of the reproductive stages and their coherence to the other stages may hinder the process of becoming productive due to the absence/inadequacy of the instrumental basis of occupational activity. Table 2 shows the relationship between the coefficients of coherence and the extent to which the stages of agency are formed in teachers with low, medium, and high integrity (integrity indicator hereinafter "Int" [18, p. 96]).

Table 2

Relationships between the coherence (Cn) coefficients and the extent to which the stages of agency are formed in teachers with low, medium, and high integrity (Kendall's correlation coefficient τ at $p < 0.05$)

	CnO	CnA		CnL		CnCc		CnM	CnCr
Types	Low	Low	High	Med.	High	Med.	High	High	Med.
Mo		0,198	-0,350	-0,210			-0,243		
O	0,209		-0,264	-0,243	-0,262				
A								-0,255	-0,273
L						0,214			-0,186
M				-0,243					
Cr			-0,311	-0,208					

The studied teachers were distributed by type of integrity as follows: 60 respondents had a low type of integrity (integrity in the range $C = 0.2\text{--}0.26$), 56 had a medium type ($C = 0.41\text{--}0.49$), and 33 had a high type ($C = 0.68\text{--}0.73$). Among the obtained relationships, no correlations exist between the 'critic' stage and the coherence of the 'motivated individual' stage with other stages. Teachers with a low type of integrity are distinguished by direct correlations of the reproductive stages of the formation of agency, which confirms the formation of agency in ontological sequence [18, p. 93]. Respondents of medium and high integrity types are distinguished by a more significant number of relationships, including productive stages of the formation of agency. The dominance of negative correlations among teachers with high integrity may be partly explained by the smallest representation of this type in the sample. In general, for the sample, the predominance of inverse relationships can characterize the process of developing the agency of specialists, expressed by low indicators of individual stages (Fig. 1).

Four groups of factors for teachers of each type of integrity were discovered. The first factor for the entire sample is represented by direct relationships between the stages of agency formation in a range of values, which confirms the principle of fractality in the ecopsychological paradigm. Table 3 reflects only specific factors for the studied types of integrity.

The composition of the factors of low, medium, and high integrity types of the studied teachers "is determined by the orientation towards long-term goals of pedagogical activities" [18, p. 99] (the 'critic,' 'master' and 'creator' stages) and current needs ('observer,' 'apprentice' and 'learner'), which are determined by the unique conditions of the pedagogical environment that shapes and is shaped by the specialists.

Table 3

Specific factors of coherence in the stages of agency formation in low, medium, and high integrity in teachers

Coherence	Low type (N = 60)			Medium type (N = 56)			High type (N = 33)		
	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
CnMo			0,802					0,774	
CnO	0,784					0,703			0,738
CnA						0,820			
CnL	0,779				-0,702			0,835	
CnCc		-0,787		0,781					-0,719
CnM			0,815				0,779		
CnCr		-0,846		-0,756			0,789		
Total variance	1,521	1,512	1,493	1,534	1,261	1,264	1,688	1,643	1,540
Proportion of total variance	0,217	0,216	0,213	0,219	0,180	0,181	0,241	0,235	0,220

Achieving high professional standards in today's pedagogical environment is only possible through high-quality specialist training at personal and instrumental levels. The practical significance of this study lies in determining the universal learning actions and the types of pedagogical activities necessary to promote the agency of pedagogical specialists and students.

Conclusions:

1. For most teachers studied, the 'motivated individual' stage is developed at a high level, while the other levels of agency are still emerging.

2. Teachers with high and low coherence indicators within the stages of agency differ significantly on the communicative level of universal learning actions.

3. Significant correlations were found between the extent of agency levels and coherence coefficients between stages.

4. Correlations were found between coherence and the extent of agency stages for low, medium, and high integrity in teachers, and four sets of factors were found for each integrity type of teacher.

Prospects for further research. The formation of agency in the participants of the educational process under the conditions of a changing and transforming bio-psycho-socio-spiritual environment remains a problematic field of scientific research. Promising areas of research from the general to the particular are: 1. Development of

diagnostic [7–9, 22, 24, 25], developmental [26], and corrective methods and techniques for developing the agency of those involved in the educational process; 2. The study of teachers' agency and the processes of interiorization and exteriorization of professional competencies in teaching activities [17, 23, 27]; 3. The study of the formation of students' agency at different ages and the factors that influence it; 4. The study of the process and types of interaction between participants in the educational environment [12, 15, 16]; 5. The development of programs and recommendations for the modernization of professional training of future teachers.

Appendix 1

Instructions: You are presented with ten situations as unfinished sentences. For each situation, there are seven possible answers. Rate each answer in each situation – How often do you behave this way? Enter the number in the form, where each number represents the following:

1 – Very rarely; 2 – Rarely; 3 – Often; 4 – Very often; 5 – Difficult to answer

Try not to avoid using '5 – Difficult to answer' as your answer.

A) When I follow the teacher's recommendations.

- 1) I do the same as the other students without thinking;
- 2) I work independently and strive for a high level of the task to be done;
- 3) I ask the teacher or a classmate to look for mistakes;
- 4) I notice errors in the implementation of teacher recommendations by other students;
- 5) I have an idea of how I can implement the task;
- 6) After I have mastered it, I intend to use it creatively in further lessons;
- 7) I make an effort to implement the task.

B) Completing homework and assignments.

- 1) I use them to complete more complex and creative tasks;
- 2) I repeat the recommended methods;
- 3) I make a plan in my head on how to complete the tasks;
- 4) I show them to the teacher to recognize any mistakes;
- 5) I act independently because I am sure that I am doing everything right;
- 6) I try to find mistakes in those who have already solved the task;
- 7) I want to solve the task.

C) Passing a test or exam.

- 1) I make an answer plan and imagine how I will answer according to this plan;
- 2) I prefer the teacher to point out my weaknesses and mistakes when grading;
- 3) I know how to avoid mistakes to answer the material excellently;
- 4) I will use the knowledge from the subject in which I took the exam in the future;
- 5) I will make a note of any mistakes or inaccuracies that my classmates have made in their answers;
- 6) I will answer as the teacher has instructed me;
- 7) I will pass the exam on the first attempt.

D) When I prepare to speak at a seminar or conference:

- 1) after I prepare my report, I ask my supervisor to review me;
- 2) I try to recognize mistakes in other students' presentations;
- 3) I know how to prepare appropriately so that my presentation is successful;
- 4) I use my acquired knowledge creatively to achieve more originality;
- 5) I do not invent anything of my own, but repeat what others have done;
- 6) I know exactly what and how I am going to report;
- 7) I try my best to perform as well as possible.

E) When I complete a difficult learning task.

- 1) I complete it successfully without asking others for help;
- 2) I find an original way to solve the task;
- 3) I repeat the methods used by others;
- 4) I devise a plan to solve the task;
- 5) I find shortcomings in the way other students solve the task;
- 6) I would like someone to point out my mistakes;
- 7) I would like to argue with them.

F) Working on an individual project.

- 1) I successfully complete the work independently;
- 2) I see further development of this topic;
- 3) I try to copy it from others;
- 4) I first create a plan for working on it;
- 5) I notice mistakes made by other students;
- 6) I work independently but ask others to point out my mistakes;
- 7) I want to finish this project (this work).

G) In mastering practical skills.

- 1) I ask others to tell me what I am doing wrong;
- 2) I notice mistakes that others make;
- 3) I first imagine how I can do it;
- 4) I can do it successfully myself;
- 5) I simply repeat the learning activities after others;
- 6) I already know where and how I will use them in the future to accomplish more complex tasks;
- 7) I want to have a firm grip on them.

H) For the success of my learning activities, the following currently helps me.

- 1) the pointing out of my mistakes by others and my continuous work to correct them;
- 2) the desire and understanding of how I can use the knowledge I have acquired in my future career;
- 3) finding mistakes that others have made;
- 4) the fact that I know how to complete learning tasks correctly on my own;
- 5) the ability to complete tasks like others;
- 6) my preliminary idea of how to complete learning tasks;
- 7) the desire to pursue a good education.

I) Performing tasks in a digital learning environment.

- 1) I visualize a picture of the task in my head;
- 2) I turn to websites and search engines to download the completed version;
- 3) I use different assessment options to find errors;
- 4) I recognize shortcomings in the content of the learning tasks published on the website;
- 5) I work on the learning tasks independently;
- 6) I imagine how I will use the completed tasks in the future;
- 7) I would like to solve these tasks.

J) While I am working on a learning task.

- 1) I visualize in my head the stages and the methods to accomplish them;
- 2) I repeat what others do (teachers or classmates) and the methods they use to solve the task;
- 3) I need the help of others (teachers or classmates) to check the correctness of my actions;

- 4) I always see and notice clearly whether other classmates solve the task correctly or incorrectly;
- 5) I know and am sure that I have solved the task correctly;
- 6) I would like to use the result for something new;
- 7) I enjoy doing the task.

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ПСИХОЛОГИЯ

ЭКОПСИХОЛОГИЧЕСКАЯ МОДЕЛЬ СТАНОВЛЕНИЯ СУБЪЕКТНОСТИ ПЕДАГОГОВ В ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНОЙ СРЕДЕ

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Аннотация. Становление субъектности в учебной деятельности обучающихся согласно экопсихологической модели включает в себя семь взаимосвязанных стадий, что математически определяется коэффициентами связности и целостности.

Мониторинг профессионально значимых качеств педагогов проводился в процессе повышения квалификации на протяжении 2021–2023 гг. в г.о. Самаре. Исследованный профиль субъектности работников образования отражает выраженность каждой стадии становления субъектности, связность стадий становления субъектности между собой и процесс интериоризации/экстериоризации профессиональных компетенций.

Обнаружены взаимосвязи уровня образования и возраста специалистов с выраженностью стадий становления субъектности. Педагоги высокой и низкой связности значимо различаются на коммуникативном уровне универсальных учебных действий.

Выраженность стадий субъектности взаимосвязана с показателями связности педагогов, характеризующихся сложной структурой факторов: по четыре фактора для каждого типа целостности.

Ключевые слова: *экопсихологическая парадигма, образовательная среда, стадии становления субъектности, профиль субъектности, связность и целостность, интериоризация, экстериоризация.*

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RESILIENCE IN ADOLESCENTS DEPENDING ON THEIR ROLE IN BULLYING SITUATIONS

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Abstract. The modern social environment brings many challenges that increase the risk of psychological vulnerability in the population as a whole. Young people, in particular, are more likely to have mental health problems and need psychological help. However, many do not seek help even though they need it. This highlights the importance of studying resilience in modern society, as it plays a crucial role in developing teenagers, helping them overcome psychological obstacles that can have long-term effects. Bullying is identified as one of the biggest problems among teenagers, with a particular focus on the risks associated with a psychologically insecure environment. The study aims to investigate the specific resilience characteristics of adolescents in bullying situations.

The study presents the results of a preliminary investigation of the resilience of adolescents who take on different roles in bullying situations. Several methods were used for the study, including the “Bullying Risk Questionnaire” (by A. Bochaver, V. Kuznecova, E. Bianki, P. Dmitrievskij, M. Zavalishina, N. Kaporskaya, K. Hlomov); “Bullying Structure Assessment Method” (E. Norkina); “The Child and Youth Resilience Measure Test” CYRM (by A. Laktionova and A. Makhnach); ZTPI “Time Perspective Questionnaire” (by F. Zimbardo, adapted by E. Sokolova, O. Mitina, et al.); “Cognitive regulation of emotions” CERQ (by N. Garnefski, V. Kraaij, adaptation: O. Pisareva, A. Gritsenko); “Shyness Diagnostic Test” (by A. Belousova, I. Yusupov); “ITQ” (Individual-Typological Questionnaire by L. Sobchik). The study was conducted on 88 adolescents aged 15 to 17 from Novosibirsk. The empirical data was analyzed using frequency analysis, the Kruskal–Wallis H-test, the Mann–Whitney U-test, and Spearman’s rank correlation.

The study found no significant differences in resilience between victims, witnesses, and defenders. However, the qualitative characteristics of resilience varied depending on the role the adolescents played in bullying situations. For victims, time perspective played a crucial role in their resilience structure, while extraversion was a distinct individual trait for defenders. These results point to possible directions for future research on adolescent resilience of adolescents in bullying situations as well as areas for improving personal resilience as a preventive approach to bullying in the school environment.

Keywords: *resilience, human resilience, adolescent resilience, resilience indicators, educational environment, bullying, time perspective*

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Global changes and economic instability, both national and worldwide, significantly impact the lifestyle and personal development of modern man. According to the Russian Public Opinion Research Center (RPORC), the number of people seeking professional psychological help has doubled in the last 13 years. Surveys also show that compared to 2021, 15% more Russian citizens now need psychological support more often. Individuals today face numerous challenges that require physical and emotional resilience. Changes in socio-economic conditions, including crises and uncertainty, require people to adapt and actively seek resources to maintain psychological well-being. Mental resilience has become a critical factor not only for individual well-being but also for public health. These findings point to an increased risk of mental vulnerability and underline the importance of addressing the issue of mental resilience.

The need for psychological support is particularly urgent for teenagers, as they are confronted with current problems daily but often do not have the means or desire to ask for help. Studies show that Russian teenagers have higher levels of psychological stress compared to their peers in other European and Asian countries. In addition, the general prevalence of mental disorders among teenagers has increased in recent years. Researchers cite suicidal thoughts, drug addiction, sleep disorders, and other psychosomatic symptoms as some of the most common problems. Ultimately, these factors have a significant negative impact on the lives and overall well-being of adolescents, especially given the low rate of seeking professional help – only 5% of adolescents receive psychological support [1].

Given the available studies, the question of the psychological resilience of young people is becoming increasingly important. A survey conducted by the National Medical Research Radiological Center of the Ministry of Health of the Russian Federation found that 83.8% of schoolchildren had psychological health problems. Among them, 42.2% were found to have depressive conditions, while 41.6% had asthenic conditions. These findings underscore the critical role of psychological resilience in adolescence, as it contributes to personal development and academic success. Resilience helps adolescents cope with identity crises,

maintain healthy relationships in various life situations, and overcome psychological challenges that can have long-term consequences throughout their lives.

In addition to the internal factors that influence the development of a resilient personality, external environmental factors such as bullying also play an important role. Bullying or systematic harassment is a widespread problem in modern society. An increasing number of studies are addressing various forms of destructive social interactions, including workplace mobbing [2, 3], bullying and discrimination in student communities [4], cyberbullying on social media [5, 6], and social ostracism and xenophobia [7, 8]. Bullying and aggressive conflict behavior are most commonly observed in group interactions among children and adolescents. These behaviors include systematic aggression, deviant behavior, and various forms of harassment. Such phenomena pose a major social challenge and require proactive prevention and intervention measures. To effectively overcome these problems, it is important to teach children and adolescents how to interact with each other in a positive way, develop their emotional intelligence, and create a safe and supportive environment in families, schools, and other social settings [9].

Since adolescence is a critical time for the development of self-awareness, research on the effects of violence on personality development is of great importance. The teenage years are characterized by unstable self-esteem and an inconsistent self-concept, making individuals particularly vulnerable to outside influences. Any form of violence against students can have a negative impact on their self-esteem, reinforcing negative self-perceptions and potentially leading to long-term psychological consequences [10, 11].

Teenagers are prone to aggression and other types of violence because they spend most of their time at school. This contradicts the fundamental purpose of education, which is to teach the young generation the communication skills that are important for life. Therefore, ensuring a psychologically safe environment becomes a priority as it plays a crucial role in personal development. Psychological resilience is one of the key characteristics associated with psychological safety [12].

Recent large-scale studies show that about 15% of students in grades 6–9 experience bullying during the school year. However, the prevalence of bullying varies significantly between schools, ranging from 0% to 40% of students experiencing bullying each year. The prevalence of

bullying does not correlate with structural characteristics of schools, such as type, location (urban or rural), size, or socio-economic status. The specifics of the distribution of bullying in educational institutions is a question that requires further investigation. Despite numerous studies on bullying, the exact reasons for the prevalence of bullying and the psychological characteristics that influence it are still not fully understood. It is still unclear why, in some schools, almost no bullying incidents are reported, while in other schools, more than half of the students see themselves as victims. Identifying the factors behind these discrepancies is a priority for future research [13].

Resilience can be a crucial factor in helping young people to deal with bullying. Resilience has helped people focus on their strengths rather than weaknesses [14]. Dictionaries define ‘resilience’ as flexibility, elasticity, adaptability, and the ability to bounce back quickly from physical or emotional challenges. Different approaches view resilience as a personality trait resulting from the process of adaptation, a mechanism of interaction between individuals and their environment, and a socially meaningful trait that characterizes individuals and entire social groups.

The diversity of definitions in the psychological literature can be traced back to the different paradigmatic perspectives of researchers from different scientific traditions. In Russian, the concept is currently refined and understood as “the ability to overcome adverse life circumstances, using all available internal and external resources, the ability to engage with life in all its aspects, and the ability to exist and develop” [15]. In Russian, ‘resilience’ was translated as ‘жизнеспособность’ (ability to live) [16].

In the context of bullying, resilience, as described by A. Makhnach, is “the ability to manage coping processes, recovery and other functions based on individual resources and external and internal protective factors” [17]. These protective factors help young people overcome significant challenges and adapt positively despite adverse circumstances [18, 19].

D. Freitas and colleagues investigated how young people deal with violence, aggression, and bullying – factors that pose a considerable risk [20]. The question of students’ resilience in various areas of life has been examined in several studies. For example, I. Gorbenko and E. Kuznetsova state that high school and university students do not always know how to deal with life’s challenges, manage resources, or

plan their activities. However, there is still a lack of research focusing specifically on adolescent resilience [21, 22].

In the study by Y. Postylyakova, she emphasizes that students' relationships with academic staff are crucial in strengthening their ability to adapt to difficult situations [22]. In addition, considerable efforts are being made to develop and refine methods for assessing resilience both at the individual level and within families [23]. However, despite researchers' interest in studying resilience and its components, there is still a lack of data on resilience in adolescents, and this topic remains largely unexplored.

Meanwhile, research has provided valuable insights into the psychological characteristics of those involved in bullying [24, 25]. It has been reliably established that bystanders play a significant role in the bullying problem. While attention is often focused on the consequences for the victim and the motives of the aggressor, the position of the bystander has a direct influence on the development of the situation. The timely intervention of a bystander can not only prevent bullying but also minimize its negative impact on the victim. At the same time, a bystander's passivity or support of the aggressor can exacerbate the situation by giving the bully a sense of impunity and increasing the victim's trauma [26]. However, current research is still limited as it does not sufficiently investigate the role of resilience and its influence on a person's ability to tolerate bullying. Therefore, despite ongoing studies and the application of their findings, the problem of bullying in dealing with students remains unresolved.

While adults' resilience has been well researched, the mental resources of young people have not yet been sufficiently explored. This topic is particularly relevant in the context of bullying at school, as schools are places where children interact with both peers and adults. These interactions shape their behavior and their perception of their future social environment. Schools act as testing grounds where children learn to deal with social norms and build relationships that will influence their school years and adult lives [27].

Current research suggests that school children are highly involved in bullying situations and the prevalence of deviant behavior [28, 29]. Therefore, it is important to examine the characteristics of resilience in adolescents in bullying situations, as mental resources are key to a student's ability to deal with the negative effects of abuse. Moreover, understanding the characteristics of resilience depending on the role an

adolescent plays in bullying situations can help to develop personalized strategies to strengthen their psychological resources.

To investigate this question, we conducted a pilot study in general education schools in Novosibirsk. The study involved 88 adolescents aged 15 to 17, with an average age of 16.46, including 46 girls and 42 boys.

The empirical sample was divided into three conditional groups based on their role in bullying situations. The first group consisted of defenders (33 participants), the second group consisted of victims (23 participants), and the third group consisted of bystanders (25 participants).

The object of the study is the resilience of an individual.

The subject of the study is the characteristics of resilience in adolescents playing various roles in bullying situations.

The following methods were used in the study:

- “Bullying Risk Questionnaire” (A. Bochaver, V. Kuznecova, E. Bianki, P. Dmitrievskij, M. Zavalishina, N. Kaporskaya, K. Hlomov);
- “Bullying Structure Assessment Method” (E. Norkina);
- “The Child and Youth Resilience Measure Test” CYRM (A. Laktionova and A. Makhnach);
- ZTPI “Time Perspective Questionnaire” (F. Zimbardo, adapted by E. Sokolova, O. Mitina, et al.);
- “Cognitive Regulation of Emotions” CERQ (N. Garnefski, V. Kraaij, adapted by O. Pisareva, A. Gritsenko);
- “Shyness Diagnostic Test” (authors: A. Belousova, I. Yusupov);
- ITQ (Individual Typological Questionnaire by L. Sobchik).

The study’s hypothesis: Depending on their position in bullying situations, there are certain correlations between young people’s resilience and their personality traits. Based on the results of the “Bullying Structure Assessment Method” by E. Norkina, the interviewees were divided into groups according to their role in bullying. The results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Distribution of respondents according to dominant role in bullying

Dominant role	Number of individuals	Percentage ratio
“Initiators”	7	8%
“Assistants”	0	0%
“Defenders”	33	38%
“Victims”	23	26%
“Bystanders”	25	28%

Due to the small number of initiators (7 individuals) and the lack of assistants in the sample, it was decided to perform the statistical analysis for three groups: Defenders, Victims, and Bystanders.

The application of the Kruskal–Wallis H -test revealed no significant differences in resilience and its components between the adolescents occupying different bullying roles. However, differences were found between the ‘Defenders,’ ‘Victims,’ and ‘Bystanders’ groups on eight personality traits. The results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Kruskal–Wallis H -criterion results

Parameters	Mean value (Defender $N = 33$)	Mean value (Victim $N = 23$)	Mean value (Bystander $N = 25$)	Kruskal– Wallis (H)	Value level (p)
Integral Measure of Viability	40,61	40,91	40,52	0,05	0,98
Attitudes	9,09	9,8	9,24	2,68	0,26
Society	9,27	8,78	9,34	1,26	0,53
Culture	9,15	9,48	8,96	1,93	0,38
Personal Characteristics	7,73	7,69	7,68	0,03	0,99

Application of the non-parametric Kruskal–Wallis H -test revealed no significant differences between the resilience levels or their components. This indicates that the resilience factors do not differ significantly between the defenders, victims, and bystanders groups. To further test the hypothesis, pairwise comparisons were conducted using the non-parametric Mann–Whitney U -test for two independent groups (Tables 3–5).

Table 3

Comparison of two groups with the Mann–Whitney U -test (group of defenders, $N = 33$ and group of victims, $N = 23$)

Parameters	Mean value (Defender)	Mean value (Victim)	Mann–Whitney U -Test	Value level (p)
Shyness	2,34	3,65	517	0,017
Future	3,6	2,63	213,5	0,003
Hedonistic Present	2,34	3,13	518,5	0,008
Positive past	3,28	2,06	197,5	0,001
Sensitivity	4,45	6,65	613	0,001
Introversion	4,79	6,87	568,5	0,001
Catastrophizing	6,06	14,13	639,5	0,001

The comparative analysis with the non-parametric Mann–Whitney U -test for two independent groups (Table 3) revealed seven significant differences. Victims scored significantly higher than defenders on

shyness, hedonistic presence, sensitivity, introversion, and catastrophizing. This suggests that respondents playing a victim role tend to be more introverted, emotionally sensitive, prone to self-isolation, and prone to exaggerate negative life events. In contrast, defenders scored significantly higher on future orientation and positive past than victims.

The comparative analysis with the non-parametric Mann–Whitney *U*-test (Table 4) revealed four significant differences. Victims scored significantly higher than bystanders on sensitivity, introversion, and catastrophizing. This suggests that individuals in the victim role are more emotionally sensitive, prone to self-isolate, and are more likely to exaggerate negative life events compared to bystanders. Bystanders scored significantly higher on blame than victims, indicating a stronger tendency to attribute negative circumstances to others.

Table 4

Comparison of two groups with the Mann–Whitney U-test (group of victims, N = 23 and group of bystanders, N = 25)

Parameters	Mean value (Victim)	Mean value (Bystander)	Mann–Whitney <i>U</i> -Test	Value level (<i>p</i>)
Sensitivity	6,65	4,8	118	0,001
Introversion	6,87	4,44	111,5	0,001
Blaming	7,4	10,12	405,5	0,014
Catastrophizing	14,13	7,52	127	0,001

The comparative analysis with the non-parametric Mann–Whitney *U*-test (Table 5) revealed four significant differences. The defenders performed significantly better than bystanders on parameters such as the future and the positive past. This indicates that individuals who take on a defender role have a more positive perception of their past experiences and are more future-oriented in their planning. At the same time, bystanders scored significantly higher than defenders on the parameters of blame and catastrophizing. This indicates a stronger tendency to blame others and focus on the negative aspects of difficult situations.

Table 5

Comparison of two groups with the Mann–Whitney U-test (group of defenders, N = 33 and group of bystanders, N = 25)

Parameters	Mean value (Defender)	Mean value (Bystander)	Mann–Whitney <i>U</i> -Test	Value level (<i>p</i>)
Future	3,6	2,57	215	0,001
Positive past	3,28	2,53	256,5	0,007
Blaming	7,6	10,12	551,5	0,028
Catastrophizing	6,06	7,52	540,5	0,043

The results of the comparative analysis thus indicate that individuals who take on a victim role in bullying situations experience greater psychological tension in interpersonal interactions. They tend to lower their self-esteem and expect negative reactions from others. They are also more receptive to impressions and react more strongly to external stimuli, although less social. For victims, the search for pleasure comes first, and the present seems to be cut off from the past and the future. They also tend to exaggerate the negative effects of their experiences.

Respondents who assume the defense role in bullying situations are generally future-oriented. Their behavior is driven by the motivation to achieve future goals and rewards. They also tend to have a warm, sentimental attitude towards the past, along with high self-esteem and a strong sense of joy, reflecting a healthy and positive outlook on life. At the same time, Defenders tend to have less of a hedonistic, reckless approach to life. They also tend to avoid thoughts that exaggerate the destructive effects of past experiences.

Spearman's non-parametric *Rs* test was used to test the hypothesis further.

The correlation analysis using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (Table 6) revealed three significant correlations in the victim group. In particular, it was found that higher levels of well-being in the class were reliably associated with higher scores for the resilience factor 'Personal Characteristics', which includes initiative, self-confidence, social competence, self-esteem, and self-efficacy.

Table 6
Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (victim group, N = 23)

Parameters	Spearman's <i>Rs</i>	<i>p</i> -level
Well-being and Personal Characteristics	0,45	0,03
Future and Relationships	0,63	0,001
Hedonistic Present and Culture	-0,42	0,05

It was also found that higher levels of goal setting and future planning among victims were systematically associated with higher scores on the resilience factor 'Relationships,' which includes warm family relationships. In addition, a significant correlation was found between victims' tendency to perceive the present as detached from the past and future and to focus solely on pleasure and lower scores on the resilience factor 'Culture,' which reflects a positive attitude towards their home country.

The correlation analysis using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (Table 7) revealed four significant correlations within the

group of defenders. High levels of engagement in the real world were positively correlated with higher scores on the 'Relationships' factor, which includes warm family relationships, and the 'Culture' factor, which reflects a positive attitude towards the home country. In addition, a strong tendency to socialize was associated with higher overall resilience scores. Higher levels of psychological tension in interpersonal communication, thoughts of personal inferiority, and a negative self-perception were associated with lower scores for the 'Relationships' factor, which includes warm family relationships.

Table 7

Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (group of defenders, N = 33)

Parameters	Spearman's Rs	p-level
Extraversion and Relationships	0,35	0,04
Extraversion and Culture	0,4	0,02
Shyness and Relationships	-0,35	0,04
Integral resilience measure and Extroversion	0,37	0,03

The correlation analysis using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (Table 8) revealed a significant relationship within the group of bystanders. The results showed that higher levels of introversion and low socialization skills among bystanders were associated with lower scores for the resilience factor 'Personal Characteristics,' which includes initiative, self-confidence, social competence, self-esteem, and self-efficacy.

Table 8

Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (group of bystanders, N = 25)

Parameters	Spearman's Rs	p-level
Introversion and Personality Characteristics	-0,43	0,04

The pilot study results show that the overall level of resilience and the associated factors do not differ significantly between victims, defenders, and bystanders aged 15–17 in bullying situations. However, there are notable qualitative differences in the structure of resilience-related associations.

In the group of victims, resilience is related to the class environment and certain aspects of time perspective. In the defender group, high levels of extraversion and low shyness correspond with higher overall resilience. In the defender group, high levels of extraversion and low shyness correspond with higher overall resilience. In the group of bystanders, lower levels of introversion are associated with higher values in the 'Personal Characteristics' factor of resilience.

The specific characteristics of young people's resilience in bullying situations, therefore, vary depending on their role. As a result, different strategies are needed to strengthen the psychological resilience of young people depending on their role in bullying situations to prevent bullying at school effectively.

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СОДЕРЖАТЕЛЬНЫЕ ХАРАКТЕРИСТИКИ ЖИЗНЕСПОСОБНОСТИ У ПОДРОСТКОВ В СИТУАЦИИ БУЛЛИНГА В ЗАВИСИМОСТИ ОТ ЗАНИМАЕМОЙ РОЛИ

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Аннотация. Современная социальная среда наполнена вызовами и сложностями, что влечёт за собой повышение рисков уязвимости психического состояния всего населения. При этом актуализируются проблемы возрастания склонности к общей заболеваемости психическими расстройствами у подростков и их нуждаемости в психологической помощи при отсутствии обращения за поддержкой. В связи с этим рассматривается важность изучения жизнеспособности в современном обществе, подчёркивается необходимость исследования жизнеспособности у подростков как фактора, помогающего в процессе взросления для успешного разрешения психологических проблем, имеющих отсроченные последствия на протяжении всей жизни индивида. Проанализирована проблема буллинга как одна из наиболее актуальных в подростковой среде, обозначены риски влияния психологически небезопасной среды на личность подростка. Целью работы является изучение особенностей жизнеспособности подростков в условиях буллинга.

Приведены результаты пилотажного исследования специфики жизнеспособности подростков, занимающих различные роли в буллинге. Для проведения исследования были использованы следующие методики: «Опросник риска буллинга» (авторы: А.А. Бочавер, В.Б. Кузнецова, Е.М. Бианки, П.В. Дмитриевский, М.А. Завалишина, Н.А. Капорская, К.Д. Хломов); «Методика на выявление буллинг-структуры» (автор Е.Г. Норкина); «Тест оценки жизнеспособности детей и подростков» CYRM (авторы: А.И. Лактионова и А.В. Махнач); «Опросник временной перспективы» ZPTI (автор Ф. Зимбардо, адаптация: Е.Т. Соколовой, О.В. Митиной и др.); «Когнитивная регуляция эмоций» CERQ (авторы: N. Garnefski, V. Kraaij, адаптация: О. Писаревой, А. Гриценко); «Тест диагностики застенчивости» (авторы: А.Б. Белоусова, И. М. Юсупов); «ИТО» (Индивидуально-типологический опросник Л.Н. Собчик). Исследование было проведено на выборке, состоявшей из 88 подростков 15–17 лет, обучающихся в г. Новосибирске. Обработка эмпирических данных проводилась с использованием частотного анализа, Н-критерия

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По итогам исследования значимых различий жизнеспособности между группами жертв, наблюдателей и защитников не выявлено. При этом обнаружено, что содержательные характеристики жизнеспособности у подростков в ситуации буллинга различаются в зависимости от занимаемой роли. Для подростков, проявляющих роль жертвы, в структуре жизнеспособности значимы показатели временной перспективы; для подростков с преобладающей ролью защитника – экстраверсии как индивидуальной характеристики. Полученные результаты позволяют наметить возможные пути дальнейшего изучения особенностей жизнеспособности у подростков в ситуации буллинга, а также определяют направления работы по укреплению устойчивости личности подростка для профилактики явлений буллинга в условиях образовательной среды.

Ключевые слова: *жизнеспособность, жизнеспособность человека, жизнеспособность подростков, показатели жизнеспособности, образовательная среда, буллинг, временная перспектива*

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THE ROLE OF PROFESSIONAL COMMUNITIES IN CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION USING THE EXAMPLE OF THE RUSSIAN SOCIETY OF PSYCHIATRISTS

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Abstract. Professional communities bring together people who work in a particular field and are a platform for cooperation, solving current professional issues, discussions, exchanging information, and expanding competencies. Professional communities form their structures and functions depending on their assigned tasks. As a rule, they are not static but can change due to changing environmental conditions or new challenges. Professional communities have their own tasks and functions, which are not limited to specialist areas but can also be social in nature. The most typical examples of such communities are social, educational, psychological, and medical communities.

Among the medical specialties, psychiatry occupies a special position, as it has its own methods as well as integrates a wide range of approaches from other specialties such as philosophy, anthropology, psychology, pedagogy, social and many natural sciences, and, of course, approaches from somatic medicine and neurology.

We have looked at the role of the Russian Society of Psychiatrists in the continuing professional education of specialists, which is constantly taking place in Russia. This enables doctors to confirm and improve their skills throughout their careers to succeed in their professional activities.

Keywords: *professional community, continuing professional development, postgraduate training, psychiatry*

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Professional communities existed even before our era. In ancient Greece, for example, artisans organized themselves into groups that carried out business tasks by training younger workers and disseminating innovations. Such groups are known among metalworkers, potters, bricklayers, and other artisans. In addition to business tasks, they also served a social purpose (group members worshipped the same gods and celebrated holidays together). The professional communities showed stability, acquired traditions, and developed an internal culture that was passed down from generation to generation. In the Middle Ages, after Christ, the communities spread throughout Europe [1]. Today, they exist worldwide and cover a wide range of professions. Today's professional communities bring together people working in a particular field, providing a platform for collaboration, solving current professional problems, discussing, sharing information, and expanding skills. They form their structures and functions depending on the tasks at hand. They are usually not static but can change due to changing environmental conditions or newly emerging challenges and opportunities. An essential difference between modern professional communities is that they do not come together individually, as in the early days, but on an institutional basis, when the community members are representatives of the institutions in which they work. Professional communities form their organizational structures and hierarchies by introducing local laws that regulate their activities, e.g., statutes, codes of ethics, ordinances, regulations, and membership directories. Regular events are an integral part of the activities of such communities [2].

Professional communities differ in their structure. They may be tightly controlled by a board of directors or grant considerable autonomy to their local branches. The communities have their tasks and functions, which are not limited to areas of expertise but may be of a hidden or explicit social nature, e.g., carrying out activities through their professional competencies to benefit society as a whole. Socially meaningful joint activity is the leading factor in forming all forms of group activity [3]. Regarding subject areas, some functions of professional communities primarily affect individual practitioners within the profession and, consequently, their clients. Another part of the functions relates to the consequences for the profession as a whole and the community of professionals as a structure. One of the main functions of professional communities is to develop strict standards for the profession and ensure that they are adhered to. In this case, it is not only about professional and educational standards but also about research standards aimed at expanding the knowledge on which the profession's activities are based [4]. Thus, communities are the guardians of professional traditions on the one hand and the architects of the future on the other. The success of professional communities may depend on a constellation of essential factors for their management, production systems, and voluntary members. Despite the large number of such communities composed of organizationally and psychologically minded professionals, there is still an apparent lack of research

on the actual organizational dynamics, especially the dynamics of growth, development, and life cycle of professional communities [5].

In relation to the topic discussed here, the functions of professional communities also include educational activities [6, 7] that raise professional training standards. This function enables them to coordinate the activities of organizations involved in academic activities at the organizational, didactic, and methodological levels. By improving the quality of standards, the professional community increases the profession's effectiveness and thus enhances its social status.

The demographic composition of members of professional communities in Russia shows that active members are usually under 40 years old. At the same time, 54% of community members rate their knowledge in the subject areas of their respective communities as average. This shows that the purpose of their participation in professional communities is, among other things, to improve their professional level. Half of the community members believe that participating in a professional community increases their self-esteem, and 66% see themselves as the community's core. About half of the participants are involved in organizing activities in their community. The community's core focus is shaped by the severity of its challenges and the extent to which they have been addressed [8].

The most typical examples of communities simultaneously having individual, internal, professional, and social influence are the social, educational, psychological, and medical communities.

Professional social sciences and practice communities have a long history, but their state differs significantly. While communities in the scientific fields have clear structures and functions, many communities of practice are still insufficiently organized. A striking example is the professional communities in the field of social work. For more than a century, the social work profession has been describing the unique and specific characteristics that define its core functions in society, yet the profession has yet to agree on a unified definition of social work [9].

Professional pedagogical communities are groups of people who are organized in a specific way and communicate regularly with each other to share experiences and practices, acquire new knowledge, and find solutions to the professional pedagogical tasks assigned to them. They are one of the resources that ensure the involvement of teachers in innovative activities [10]. The peculiarity of professional-pedagogical communities is the formation of methodological associations. This fact shows that methodological and management functions are developed in these communities together. At the same time, methodological work has become a sustainable incentive for teachers' professional development. It contributes to their self-realization, solves personal and professional problems, and increases job satisfaction [11].

The professional communities of psychologists promote the development, dissemination, and application of psychological science, knowledge, and practice to benefit society and improve people's quality of life. Their main tasks are to set ethical standards for the profession and to promote interaction

between professionals working in different fields. The publishing activities of professional communities of psychologists are also widely known, especially the publication of scientific journals in various fields of psychology [12]. At the beginning of 2025, 370 (0.8%) of the 47,941 publications indexed in the Scopus database contained the term ‘psychology’ in their title. Professional communities publish a large proportion of these. The educational activities of professional communities of psychologists include not only a variety of academic programs but also the promotion of young scientists, including the awarding of prizes for excellence [13].

Medical professional communities are part of the medical community and fulfill the tasks of protecting intellectual property, creating conditions for the most effective use of professional qualifications, and ensuring societal accountability [14]. They are usually grouped and classified according to their affiliation to a particular medical specialty, their members’ composition and quality, and their legal status. In addition, there are general medical communities and other forms of self-organization of health professionals [15]. An example of this is the National Medical Chamber of Russia, which was established in April 2010 to unite the professional associations of medical practitioners in their work to improve public health [16]. Over the years, its influence on the Russian healthcare system has increased significantly, and its established authority allows it to participate in the legal regulation of medical activities through interaction with the Main Directorate of Forensics of the Investigative Committee of the Russian Federation [17]. It should be emphasized that professional medical communities in Russia are not closed systems; like other communities, they are involved in educational activities, have social influence, and, at the same time, are themselves subject to external influences, with particular attention being paid to globalization in this process.

The Russian healthcare system uses the International Classification of Diseases, 10th revision, for the diagnostic process [18]. One of the consequences of diagnostic system standardization is the change in medical terminology. Because this classification was originally written in English, a means of international communication, during medical forums and in leading scientific publications, the penetration of Anglicisms into other languages is a permanent process. According to N. Gribova and O. Chaplygina [19], the frequency of Anglicisms used in medical circles and during communication with patients is highest among Russian medical specialties in surgery. Oncology, whose terminology was largely influenced by Latin and Greek, uses the fewest Anglicisms. Based on the analysis, the authors propose, for educational purposes, the creation of a unified glossary of English medical terminology with translation into Russian, conducting educational seminars and courses for medical personnel and teachers on the correct use of Anglicisms in Russian medicine, monitoring and analyzing the use of Anglicisms in clinical practice and in the educational process, as well as monitoring their proper use and translation into Russian with contextual adaptation for students and professionals in the field of medicine.

Psychiatric professional societies focus on various areas of theory and practice in the field, such as cutting-edge research, the development of new drugs, and innovations in clinical practice [20]. Although mental illness has been with humanity since time immemorial, the term ‘psychiatry’ was only introduced at the beginning of the 19th century [21]. It is composed of the roots of the Greek words ψυχή – soul, ιατρός – physician, doctor, and ιατρικός – medical, related to medicine. Later, this term began to refer to the corresponding specialty and branch of clinical medicine that researches mental disorders using medical methods and develops and implements procedures for diagnosis, prevention, and treatment. In the middle of the same century, W. Griesinger [22] defined psychiatry as the study of the recognition and treatment of mental illness. According to A. Tiganov [23], this definition captures the key characteristics of this medical specialty, as recognition involves diagnosing mental disorders and studying their etiology, pathogenesis, progression, and consequences.

Meanwhile, treatment encompasses not only direct therapy but also the organization of psychiatric care, various forms of prevention, rehabilitation, and social aspects. Nevertheless, the prominent Moscow psychiatrist V. Gilyarovsky [24] criticized the term ‘psychiatry’ because it separates the psyche from the body and considers psychoses to be the same somatic diseases as all others. Although ideas about the separate existence of the soul (psyche) and body have been known since antiquity, these views were seriously supported by R. Descartes [25], who argued that he could gain some knowledge about himself without knowing the body and that the mind must not control the body. Cartesian psychosomatic dualism has taken root in a number of philosophical concepts and still influences medicine in general and psychiatry in particular [26, 27]. This is at odds with holistic approaches that presuppose a holistic understanding of the human being [28, 29]

The main methods in psychiatry are clinical. They include a thorough assessment of the patient’s complaints, life and illness history, a detailed examination of behavior, mental state, and subjective experience, as well as physical, laboratory, and instrumental examinations [30]. The clinical methods thus make it possible to find the transition of an individual from a state of mental health to a psychopathological space [31–33].

The World Health Organization defines mental health as a state of mental well-being that enables people to cope with the stresses of life, realize their abilities, learn well, and work well [34]. At the heart of this definition is a hedonic and eudaimonic perspective in which well-being and achievement play a key role. Although well-being is a desirable goal for many people, its inclusion in the definition of mental health raises concerns [35]. According to S. Galderisi et al. [36], such an understanding narrows the corridor of conditions that belong to mental health. Therefore, the authors proposed a new definition: “Mental health is a dynamic state of internal equilibrium which enables individuals to use their abilities in harmony with universal values of society. Basic cognitive and social skills; ability to recognize, express, and modulate one’s own emotions as well as empathize with others; flexibility and ability to

cope with adverse life events and function in social roles; and harmonious relationship between body and mind represent important components of mental health which contribute, to varying degrees, to a state of internal equilibrium.” Despite the obvious differences in the interpretation of the state of mental health in the definitions presented, it is evident that its components are related not only to the processes occurring in the body but also to a number of other factors at the psychological, cultural, and social levels [37]. Accordingly, R. Cawley’s [38] statement that psychiatry is more than just a science is not speculative. It occupies a special position among the medical disciplines because it has its own methods and integrates various approaches from other disciplines such as philosophy, anthropology, psychology, education, social and many natural sciences, and, of course, approaches from somatic medicine and neurology. Based on the above, it can be stated that psychiatry is an interdisciplinary branch of medicine closely linked to other natural sciences and the humanities and social sciences, which is confirmed by numerous frontier studies [39–43]. This places an additional burden on higher educational institutions and mental health professionals when it comes to incorporating material from related disciplines into educational programs.

Historically, psychiatric communities actively collaborated with educational organizations and carried out educational activities themselves. In the middle of the 20th century, there was a clear conviction that the field’s development was impossible without dialog between representatives of different schools of psychiatry. The World Psychiatric Association was therefore founded in 1950 to hold international congresses. Sometime later, it was agreed that this association should unite professional psychiatric communities worldwide. In 1961, such an association was formally established to promote mental health and psychiatry worldwide. According to the latest data, the World Psychiatric Association brings together 145 psychiatric societies from 121 countries and more than 250,000 psychiatrists. The association comprises more than 70 scientific sections and a powerful educational platform [44, 45].

One of the professional communities of the World Psychiatric Association is the Russian Society of Psychiatrists. Professional associations of psychiatrists and neurologists were formed in Russia as early as the end of the 19th century, based on which the Russian Union of Psychiatrists and Neurologists was founded in 1908. The professional association of these two specialties existed for 80 years, after which it was decided to separate them. The Russian Society of Psychiatrists was registered in 1991 as an independent legal entity and is a public organization that unites psychiatrists, addictologists, psychotherapists, medical psychologists, and other professionals engaged in practical and scientific psychiatry [46]. Its activities are aimed at improving and increasing the quality of medical care for people with mental disorders and protecting their rights and legitimate interests. The educational activities of the Russian Society of Psychiatrists focus on improving the professional level of specialists working in the field of psychiatry and related specialties. The society unites more than 8,500 psychiatrists and other mental health

professionals engaged in scientific work and practical activities. There are regional branches of the Russian Society of Psychiatrists in the vast majority of subjects of the Russian Federation. The society's moral guidelines are laid down in the Code of Professional Ethics of Psychiatrists, which was adopted at the Plenum of the Board of the Russian Society of Psychiatrists on April 19, 1994 [47].

The President heads the society; the Executive Committee consists of the First Vice President and five Vice Presidents, two of whom are responsible for the society's educational projects and vocational training issues. The governing bodies also include the Board of Directors, the Executive Committee, the Examination Commission, Councils, Sections, Commissions, Regional Branches, and the Council for Young Scientists. Congresses and plenary meetings of the Board are held at regular intervals [48, 49], at which the most important topics in psychiatry and related disciplines that are of central importance for the development of this society are discussed. The Board's activities focus on promoting basic and applied scientific developments, educational programs, and the organization of psychiatric care, especially psychosocial rehabilitation of patients with mental disorders, an evidence-based approach to reduce the burden of disease and associated stigma [50]. The publishing, public, and international activities of the Russian Society of Psychiatrists allow it to be open to interaction, participate in the global research agenda, influence domestic social processes, and address a wide range of issues related to mental health. The society confronts governmental bodies and the Russian public with the problems of protecting the rights and legitimate interests of people who have mental illness [51]. The effectiveness of communication is also ensured by interaction with the media and positioning the activities of the Russian Society of Psychiatrists on the Internet [52].

Improving mental health services involves further developing the mental health care system itself and training highly qualified staff. One of the most effective tools for maintaining an adequate level of professional competence of specialists is the system of continuous medical education [53]. The Russian Society of Psychiatrists began more than 20 years ago to introduce a system of continuous professional development in psychiatry, addictology, psychotherapy, and clinical and medical psychology. The regional societies were involved in this process to ensure the exchange of information and proposals for the development of the system. In October 2004, the plenary meeting of the Society's Board of Directors decided to recognize the development of a system of continuous professional education as a mandatory process. An assessment of the qualifications of psychiatrists and addictologists was introduced, with appropriate certificates being issued for participation in training events. The representatives of the local psychiatric societies in the regional certification commissions were asked to apply these criteria when assigning qualification categories [54].

The Commission for Continuing Professional Education is currently developing a system of continuing professional education in the Russian Society of Psychiatrists. Its members include experts in this field and

representatives of universities in Moscow, St. Petersburg, Kazan, Makhachkala, Yekaterinburg, Barnaul, Smolensk, Stavropol, and Tomsk. The commission coordinates the training programs, develops new forms of interaction between the departments, including joint clinical studies on complex cases, and is constantly working on creating manuals, textbooks, teaching aids, and methodological recommendations. The training cycles cover all areas of general psychopathology, private psychiatry, clinical psychopharmacology, psychotherapy, and biological and social psychiatry.

The activities of the Russian Society of Psychiatrists in the field of continuous professional education enable practitioners throughout their careers to confirm their skills and improve them for successful professional activities.

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ОБЗОРЫ

РОЛЬ ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНЫХ СООБЩЕСТВ В ДОПОЛНИТЕЛЬНОМ ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОМ ОБРАЗОВАНИИ НА ПРИМЕРЕ РОССИЙСКОГО ОБЩЕСТВА ПСИХИАТРОВ

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Аннотация. Профессиональные сообщества объединяют в себе людей, работающих в определенной предметной области, и являются платформой для сотрудничества, решения актуальных профессиональных вопросов, проведения дискуссий, обмена информацией, расширения компетенций. Профессиональные сообщества формируют свои структуры и функции в зависимости от задач, стоящих перед ними. Они, как правило, не являются статическими, а могут трансформироваться в связи с изменением окружающих условий, или возникающими новыми вызовами. Профессиональные сообщества имеют свои миссии и функции, которые могут не быть ограниченными предметными областями, а носить и социальный характер. Наиболее характерными примерами таких сообществ являются собственно социальные, а также педагогические, психологические и медицинские.

Среди медицинских специальностей особое место занимает психиатрия, которая имеет как собственные методологии, так и интегрирует широчайший спектр подходов из других предметных областей, таких как философия, антропология, психология, педагогика, социальные и многие естественные науки и, конечно, подходы, принятые в соматической медицине и неврологии.

Мы рассмотрели вопрос роли Российского общества психиатров в дополнительном профессиональном образовании специалистов, которое в России является непрерывным. Это позволяет практикующим специалистам на протяжении всей карьеры подтверждать компетенции и совершенствовать их для осуществления успешной профессиональной деятельности.

Ключевые слова: профессиональное сообщество, дополнительное профессиональное образование, последипломное образование, психиатрия

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