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ПСИХОЛОГИЯ РАЗВИТИЯ | DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY

Resources for Psychological Safety of Students in an Unstable Sociocultural Environment: a Review of Theoretical and Empirical Research

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Global social transformations affected people are taking place in the modern world. This influence can negatively affect representatives of the younger generation – students who do not have personal and social maturity and are in the process of professional development. The problem of the study is to identify the resources for psychological safety of students in a tense sociocultural environment. The article presents a review of scientific works from 2019 to 2023 using the electronic bibliographic databases RSCI and Scopus. More than 70 scientific articles with the results of theoretical and empirical studies of the problem of human psychological safety resources in a tense sociocultural environment were analyzed. The studies involved civilians living in territories with special conditions, including territories of military conflicts: teenagers, adults, students. Based on the results of a systematic review, a theoretical model is proposed. It includes external and internal resources for the psychological safety of students in a tense sociocultural environment. The features of students' socialization and the resources of the educational environment are identified as key external resources. Internal ones include cognitive regulation of emotions, constructive defense mechanisms, prosocial values and social intelligence,

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Ресурсы психологической безопасности студентов в напряженной социокультурной среде: обзор теоретических и эмпирических исследований. Психолого-педагогические исследования. 2024. Том 16. № 2. С. 3–29.

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which act as the main resources for overcoming traumatic experiences, influencing subjective well-being and ensuring the psychological safety of students. The proposed theoretical model can serve as the basis for the development of psychological support programs for students. Research prospects can be presented in the context of empirical verification of the theoretical model.

Keywords: psychological safety; students; difficult life situation; special living conditions; territories of military conflict; extreme operating conditions; psychological and pedagogical support; resources; psychological stability; systematic literature review.

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В современном мире происходят глобальные социальные трансформации, влияющие на человека. Это влияние может негативно сказываться на представителях подрастающего поколения – студенческой молодежи, не обладающей личностной и социальной зрелостью, находящейся в процессе профессионального становления. Проблема исследования заключается в выявлении ресурсов психологической безопасности студентов в напряженной социокультурной среде. В статье представлен обзор научных работ с 2019 по 2023 годы с использованием электронных библиографических баз данных РИНЦ и Scopus. Было проанализировано более 70 научных статей с результатами теоретических и эмпирических исследований проблемы ресурсов психологической безопасности человека в напряженной социокультурной среде. В проанализированных исследованиях респондентами были жители, проживающие на территориях с особыми условиями, в ситуации военных конфликтов; молодежь, обучающаяся в условиях напряженной социокультурной среды. На основании результатов систематического обзора предложена теоретическая модель, включающая внешние и внутренние ресурсы психологической безопасности студенческой молодежи в напряженной социокультурной среде. В качестве ключевых внешних ресурсов определены особенности социализации студентов и ресурсы образовательной среды. В качестве внутренних – когнитивная регуляция эмоций, конструктивные защитные механизмы, просоциальные ценности и социальный интеллект, выступающие как основные ресурсы для преодоления психотравмирующего опыта, влияния на субъективное благополучие и обеспечения психологической безопасности студентов. Предложенная теоретическая модель может служить основой для разработки программ психологического сопровождения студентов. Перспективы исследования могут быть представлены в контексте эмпирической верификации теоретической модели.

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Ключевые слова: психологическая безопасность; студенты; трудная жизненная ситуация; особые условия проживания; территории военного конфликта; экстремальные условия деятельности; психолого-педагогическое сопровождение; ресурсы; психологическая устойчивость; систематический обзор литературы.

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A problem statement

In contemporary social conditions, issues related to human security are undeniably relevant. Psychological safety is a crucial aspect of overall security, and its violation negatively impacts an individual's well-being and health. Young individuals are particularly vulnerable to breaches in psychological safety due to their developing resilience resources. Researchers highlight the significant vulnerability and psychological trauma faced by young people in today's world [36].

In recent years, students have confronted numerous negative factors in the social environment, such as economic crises, the COVID-19 pandemic, the transition to distance learning, and others [1; 5; 8; 52]. This environment, laden with psychotraumatic elements, negatively affects mental health and functional efficacy, demanding substantial coping resources. Often referred to as a “tense sociocultural environment,” this milieu includes concepts like “territory with special living conditions, including military conflict,” “functioning in a difficult life situation,” and “extreme situation.”.

Amid geopolitical tensions, residing in areas with special living conditions is a psychologically traumatizing factor. An underexplored aspect affecting psychological safety is the experience of individuals living in the newly incorporated territories of the Russian Federation. The impact is particularly severe for student youth, who are at the beginning stages of professional development and important life decisions yet lack full personal and social maturity. Studies by I.A. Baeva et al. indicate that the insecurity of living in such territories stems from the continuous and multifaceted threats to life and health, significantly diminishing the quality of life across various indicators. This unique situation can be viewed as an opportunity to “test skills or resources” in a psychological context [38]. Additionally, some researchers argue that challenging life situations can positively influence personality development, as increasing mental tension is essential for personal growth (V.A. Ananyev, F.E. Vasilyuk, M. Mead, G. Sellier, et al.).

We regard the external constraints due to special living conditions as a challenge to the personal

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resources of young people in a conflict-laden sociocultural environment. Students in such environments face elevated stress, anxiety, and uncertainty about the future, creating a unique social development situation characterized by several factors: difficulty in planning life goals, limited educational opportunities, and restricted social support and contacts. These conditions negatively impact students' psychological well-being and emotional states, inducing feelings of anxiety and helplessness [4; 23]. Addressing these conditions requires creating safety, predictability, and stability within the educational environment [61; 63; 66; 75].

The risk-resource approach is particularly suitable for studying human activities in a tense sociocultural environment, as it assesses adaptive potential in resisting the negative effects of excessive mental stress while identifying psychological targets for intervention. Resources are understood as the full spectrum of possibilities available to individuals to manage their current situations [34].

We define psychological safety as the ability to maintain stability amid psychotraumatic influences. Research demonstrates that psychological safety fosters a socially approved value system, enhances social intelligence among adolescents and young adults, and contributes to the psychological well-being of educational subjects [3; 43]. Foreign studies similarly emphasize the critical role of the educational environment's psychological safety in maintaining young people's mental health and psychological well-being [58, 59]. Psychological safety mediates by reducing negative consequences and strengthening protective personality traits [11; 55].

One potential intervention for students in the newly incorporated territories of the Russian Federation is university psychological services. These services aim to promote positive socialization and psychological safety, focusing on restoring psychological stability, fostering integrity, providing resource access, transforming traumatic experiences into functional ones, and preventing retraumatization [15]. Notably, there is a paucity of research on student resources that facilitate coping with changing social environments [33]. It should be emphasized that all psychological regularities can only be discussed in consideration of the reality that has formed in a specific sociocultural environment. It is important to note that the educational environment is a system phenomenon within a broader sociocultural environment, which dictates the need to apply the principle of cultural expediency. **The sociocultural context of the studied issue** lies in the fact that currently, there is a historical situation that has led to the emergence of a new social development situation for student youth in the territories newly incorporated into the Russian Federation. This has caused a **contradiction** between the need for psychological theory and practice in knowledge about the resources of students' psychological safety in the mentioned conditions and the insufficient systematization of data on this phenomenon in modern psychological science. The search for ways to resolve this contradiction has defined the **research problem**, which is to identify the resources for students' psychological safety in a tense sociocultural environment.

This study aims to develop a theoretical model of resources for students' psychological safety in a tense sociocultural environment, based on a systematic review of theoretical and empirical studies by Russian and foreign authors. The study was conducted using the method of systematic review of publications on the problems of psychological safety resources in a tense sociocultural environment, which correlated with the characteristics of students studying in such conditions. The review

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encompassed Russian-language and English-language publications from 2019 to 2023 in the digital bibliographic databases RINC and Scopus, using primary keywords. Articles were selected based on relevance, study design robustness, and the availability of full texts or detailed abstracts. From an initial sample of 5,223 articles, approximately 100 sources met the criteria, with 77 included in the final analysis.

Content of previous studies

The need to adapt to the conditions of a tense sociocultural environment poses a challenge to student youth: to identify and actualize external and internal resources that contribute to the formation of psychological safety under the influence of psychotraumatic factors. We emphasize that within the framework of I.A. Baeva's concept of psychological safety we understand the state of psychological safety of a person as the ability to maintain stability in a situation with psychotraumatic influences. Resources of psychological safety, as a rule, are divided into two groups: external (environmental) and internal (personal), and when various difficulties arise, young people tend to turn to the available opportunities of the environment, as personal resources are still in the developmental stage [3].

Before proceeding to the description of environmental resources, let us turn to the studies of the peculiarities of the mental state of people during wartime and living in the territories of military conflicts. N.M. Zakharova et al. found that long-term consequences of psychotraumatic factors can be more destructive than immediate ones [18; 68]. R.M. Litvinova et al. identified the following factors affecting the mental state of civilians of the Donetsk and Luhansk People's Republics living in a long-term military conflict [29]: life threat factors, health threat factors, economic factors, socio-political factors, social and psychological factors. According to E.N. Ryadinskaya, the factors of mental tension in conditions of armed conflict are uncertainty, the presence of conflicts in the sphere of significant relationships, extreme conditions, change of values, loss of the meaning of life [48]. The influence of the physical environment, material and object environment is important. A significant role in the preservation of subjective well-being is played by the cultural environment and related religious aspects, increased adherence to prayer practices and participation in religious rituals [36; 73; 77].

The importance of external resources is confirmed in the study of E.N. Dymova. In a comparative analysis of perceptions of psychological safety among civilians and conscripts aged 18 to 25, it was found that servicemen rely more on the help and support of others [16]. A group of researchers who analyzed the overcoming of difficult life situations by young people in South Ossetia in the post-war period came to similar conclusions [27]. It was found that adolescents from the new regions assessed their own level of safety and well-being lower than their peers in the rest of the country [39; 51].

Foreign studies dedicated to the factors of mental state of young people in the zone of armed conflict are of great interest. In particular, K.E. Miller and M.J. Jordans identify direct factors: violence and destruction, and indirect factors: social and material conditions of everyday life [65]. In the study by G. Veronese et al. the following factors are identified as the main factors affecting the mental state of Palestinian students: school, social relations and home, military occupation, national and political identity, religion and spirituality, as well as environment and mental health [60]. P.

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Ventevogel et al. who studied Afghan children under conditions of war and migration point to family relationships and cultural values [56]. Studies by F. Mahamid et al. revealed that the deterioration of the quality of life is the main factor of people's psychological suffering [64]. The results of foreign studies show that the consequence of living in a military conflict zone is a feeling of chronic insecurity caused by a number of macro (military occupation, national and political identity, religion and spirituality, cultural values, quality of life) and micro (family, school, social relations) factors.

Young people from the newly incorporated territories of the Russian Federation are affected by several traumatic factors: direct stay in the combat zone, constant discussion of the events, anxiety for life and health, observation of scenes of violence, etc. [12; 46]. The information environment plays an important role; recent studies show that students suffer from information overload [46]. In general, the process of socialization and adaptation of students is influenced by environmental and personal factors: 1) socio-demographic - student's age, social status; 2) pedagogical - university orientation, professionalism of teachers, material and technical support of the university; 3) individual-typological characteristics (properties of the nervous system, temperament, character, cognitive, emotional and behavioral characteristics, etc.). [32]. Socio-professional identity is also important [31].

Involvement in the learning process at the university is a significant external resource for both students and teachers [28; 71; 72]. The data obtained on a sample of 993 students from different regions of Russia indicate that the formed professional identity is characterised by high learning motivation and involvement in the activities of higher education institution [31]. Foreign studies have established that it can be a factor in protecting and increasing students' resilience and well-being in military conflicts [57]. It should be noted that university teachers in the newly incorporated territories of the Russian Federation note the need to study students' psychological safety resources, values, motivation and self-regulation [25; 70]. It has been revealed that 69.6% of university managers in Transnistria note the demand for high self-efficiency and self-regulation of teachers [40]. In a situation of military conflict, when habitual ties are destroyed, the presence of trusting relationships in the educational environment and psychological climate will be important social resources for maintaining the state of psychological safety and subjective well-being of students [14; 17; 51].

Obviously, in an unstable sociocultural environment, students may have limited external resources, so their internal resources consolidated to maintain psychological safety will be of key importance. Let us turn to the results of research on human resilience resources in a situation with psychotraumatic influences. The analysis shows that the main resources of psychological safety in such a situation are regulation of emotional state, social skills, positive values, coping strategies and psychological defenses. M.A. Odintsova et al. write that the special military operation in Ukraine and its consequences (mobilization, moving to another country, etc.) is a global challenge, and all psychological coping resources associated with it are significantly higher than in other difficult life situations [38]. The most effective resources are, on the one hand, coping strategies, and on the other hand, turning to religion and active expression of emotions. We emphasize that the use of emotional resources also depends on cultural aspects [41]. According to monitoring data from the Institute of Psychology of the Russian Academy of Sciences, young people aged 18-24 are the most susceptible to anxiety and depression in the conditions of military conflict, the level of depressive

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symptomatology on the scale of anxiety and depression (PHQ-4) in the spring of 2022 was close to 80%, and the level of anxiety - to 60% [37]. Consequently, in order to adapt to psychotraumatic conditions, as well as to overcome their negative consequences, it is necessary to form psychological resources in students that allow them to maintain a state of psychological safety. The resources that make up emotional, cognitive and behavioral blocks have been identified [54]. The study conducted by O.V. Boyko and N.V. Novikova in the DNR in 2018 on a sample of 219 students showed that students' constructive experience of an extreme situation of military conflict is determined by the following personal individual psychological characteristics: "1) temperament properties - high level of extraversion and low level of neuroticism; 2) character traits - high intelligence, courage, dreaminess, anxiety, radicalism, high self-control, gullibility, composure, calmness, relaxation; 3) components of the motivational structure of personality - life support, social status, communication, creative activity, general life orientation, work orientation; 4) system of meaning-life orientations - goals in life, life process or interest and emotional intensity of life, life performance or satisfaction with self-actualization, locus of control - I am the master of life, locus of control - life or controllability of life, general index of meaning-life orientations; 5) components of the system of life meanings - altruistic, hedonistic, life meanings of self-actualization; 6) components of self-actualization - auto sympathy, contact, time orientation, values, spontaneity, self-understanding, general indicator of self-actualization" [6; 7]. [6; 7]. V. Overchuk et al. revealed that the main personal resources for overcoming stress in a military conflict are self-control, resilience and developed communication skills [70].

The psychological service of V.I. Vernadsky KFU in 2022-2023 found that students who find themselves in a difficult life situation against the background of increased social tension and the presence of trauma "witness", have high rates of maladaptation, impaired will and co-dependence in combination with low social intelligence [30]. E.N. Ryadinskaya, analyzing the mental states of people living in the zone of military conflicts, focuses on meaning-life orientations and values [48; 49], which are an important resource of students' psychological safety, determining the orientation of personality [10; 44]. It has been found that if individual values coincide with the dominant ones in the region and the immediate environment, the subjective well-being of students increases [45]. They are also correlated with the success of socio-psychological adaptation and indicators of subjective satisfaction [19] and empathy. The significance of empathy for positive interpersonal relations and achievement of social success has been proved [2]. This indicates the need to consider social intelligence as a resource of psychological safety, as it determines the success of social interaction and contributes to increasing the level of subjective well-being of the individual [21]. The results obtained by M.V. Kondrashova show that the personal resources of psychological safety of students in a tense sociocultural environment are psychological stability and coping strategies [26]. An online study of the psycho-emotional state of students and teachers who stayed in the country during the hostilities and continued online learning was conducted in Ukrainian universities in May 2022 (a total of 589 people, including 69.2% of students and 30.8% of teachers: 85.9% of women and 14.1% of men). Higher rates of fear of war and emotional burnout were found in students compared to faculty, also these rates are higher in women than in men. The indicators of resilience are lower in students than in teachers and in women than in men. 97.8% of respondents reported a decline in psycho-emotional status with complaints of depression (84.3%), fatigue (86.7%), loneliness (51.8%),

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nervousness (84.4%) and anger (76.9%). Students were significantly more likely to report fatigue, loneliness, nervousness and anger. A significant effect of student status and gender on the expression of the studied indicators was shown [76]. These data are consistent with the results of studies by J.T. Jong et al. on a sample of 3048 people from post-conflict regions [62], as well as F.J. Charlson and N. Morina [67; 69].

Subjective well-being [35; 47] and the level of emotional comfort [68] are considered as predictors of a decrease in the number of perceived stressors. According to N.A. Derevyankina and M.A. Yuferova, during 10 days of staying in safe conditions, the emotional background of adolescents from newly incorporated regions normalized and approached the age norm [13]; these results confirm the connection between psychological safety and subjective well-being.

When stress factors occur, cognitive regulation is a strategy that allows a person to maintain control over emotions not only during but also after the impact of affective situations. It has been proved that self-regulation in all its manifestations is one of the resources of psychological safety of an individual in stressful situations [53]. The results of a study involving students living in a military conflict zone showed that students use cognitive restructuring as well as strategies related to social support [74]. However, there is a view that in a combat situation, a person cannot influence their stress factors, so effective coping cannot be considered as resources. In this context, psychological defenses would be more effective in reducing psycho-emotional stress [22; 42; 50]. Environmental triggers are found in "emotional reactions, exerting a significant influence on the perception and experience of well-being" [46, p. 367], weakening resources of emotional coping and constructive thinking [9], and here defense mechanisms will reduce the risk of intrapersonal conflict [36]. It is also important to note that people living in areas of military conflicts may, over time, change attitudes towards situations that initially caused them acute stress reactions [24]. Researchers note the importance of being able to utilize the resources and compensatory capabilities of the psyche, taking into account the environmental conditions [20].

Conclusions

A systematic review and analysis of contemporary scientific publications allowed us to establish that the state of children and their resources in a tense sociocultural environment has been sufficiently described, but there is a deficit of data concerning adolescence. Tense sociocultural environment is characterized by uncertainty, excessive information overload, anxiety and accumulation of stressors that affect well-being and adaptability. Staying for a long time in such an environment leads to changes in the structure of resources that support the state of psychological safety. Macro-level factors (residence, political factors, economic factors, information and cultural environments) and meso-level factors (family, immediate environment, educational environment, other socio-psychological factors) are considered as environmental factors affecting psychological safety. Internal (psychological) resources include individual-typological, emotional, cognitive and behavioral resources. The results of the systematic review of scientific literature allowed us to consider the educational environment of the university as the key external resource of students' psychological safety in a tense sociocultural environment, because under conditions of uncertainty and risks it remains one of the most significant and relatively stable socio-psychological factors that provide protection and support students'

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subjective well-being. The favorable socio-psychological climate, professional commitment of teachers, involvement in the educational environment, supportive relationships with significant adults, and referentiality of the educational environment were identified as the main studied indicators of the educational environment. The main internal resources for overcoming psychotraumatic experience, influencing subjective well-being, behavioral attitudes and ensuring students' psychological safety are: cognitive regulation of emotions, constructive defense mechanisms, prosocial values and social intelligence.

The conducted analysis gives grounds to propose a model of resources of students' psychological safety in a tense sociocultural environment (fig.).



Fig. Model of psychological safety resources for students in a tense sociocultural environment

Suggestions for overcoming the problem

Within the framework of professional work of specialists of the educational system and psychological services at universities, aimed at ensuring psychological safety of students, it is not possible to influence macro-level factors, the focus of their attention will be on the resources of the educational environment and personal resources of students. Currently, there is a contradiction between the need to create psychological and pedagogical conditions to ensure students' psychological safety in a tense sociocultural environment and the lack of scientifically-based recommendations that contribute to the fulfilment of this process in the mentioned conditions. The proposed model of students' psychological safety resources serves as a basis for the development of student support programs in the educational environment of universities, which will eventually contribute to the restoration and preservation of students' psychological health and well-being. The

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activity of the support service in the university, based on the identified resources, will be able to solve significant social tasks for the positive socialization of students in tense socio-cultural conditions. Let us emphasize the importance of taking into account the cultural context when conducting psychological work with students, peculiarities of their mentality and traditions. A student studying in psychologically safe conditions, who has learnt to solve problems constructively and has preserved psychological health, will have a greater efficiency of activity and the possibility of transmitting his positive experience in social interaction. The prospects of the study can be presented in the context of empirical verification of the proposed theoretical model.

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Formation of Characteristics of a Self-Actualizing Personality among Medical Students

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Improving the quality of physician training includes the development of professionally important qualities during the period of study at a university. Psychological and pedagogical support for medical university students has not been sufficiently developed and is rarely implemented. The work is aimed at studying the formation of the qualities of a self-actualizing personality among medical university students. The authors developed and substantiated a model of psychological and pedagogical support for the formation of a complex of personal protective skills for future doctors. The authors presented the results of an empirical study obtained on a sample of 180 5th year medical university students with specialties in General Medicine and Dentistry (90 people – experimental group participating in the experimental program, 90 people – control group). The researchers used the self-actualization test technique of E. Shostrom in adaptation of L.Ya. Gozman and M.V. Crozat. The results obtained indicate that indicators of the characteristics of a self-actualizing personality change statistically significantly after participation in the experimental program. These studies can be used as an effective means of professional development for future and practicing doctors.

Keywords: self-actualizing personality; professionally important qualities; self-acceptance; self-esteem; spontaneity; synergy; future doctors.

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Формирование характеристик самоактуализирующейся личности у студентов медицинского вуза

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Повышение качества подготовки врачей включает развитие профессионально важных качеств в период обучения в вузе. Психолого-педагогическое сопровождение студентов медицинского вуза разработано недостаточно, внедряется редко. Работа направлена на исследование формирования качеств самоактуализирующейся личности у студентов медицинского вуза. Авторы

разработали и обосновали модель психолого-педагогического сопровождения формирования комплекса профессионально важных качеств (ПВК) будущих врачей. Авторы представили результаты эмпирического исследования, полученные на выборке 180 студентов 5 курса медицинского университета специальностей «Лечебное дело» и «Стоматология» (90 человек – экспериментальная группа, участвующая в экспериментальной программе, 90 человек – контрольная группа). Исследователи использовали методику – самоактуализационный тест Э. Шострома в адаптации Л.Я. Гозмана¹ и М.В. Кроза. Полученные результаты свидетельствуют, что показатели характеристик самоактуализирующейся личности статистически достоверно меняются после участия в экспериментальной программе. Данные исследования могут быть использованы в качестве эффективного средства профессионального становления будущих практикующих врачей.

Ключевые слова: самоактуализирующаяся личность; профессионально важные качества; самопринятие; самоуважение; спонтанность; синергичность; будущие врачи.

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Introduction

The period of study in a higher education institution marks a critical stage in the professional formation of an individual, during which the development of professionally important qualities (PIQs) for future specialists begins [1]. The formation and development of PIQs are influenced by the requirements of the Federal State Educational Standards (FSES) and the "social order." As the evaluation of a doctor's competence and professionalism has become increasingly complex and pervasive, the higher professional education system faces the challenge of implementing effective training methods to ensure specialists meet both professional and societal expectations [25]. In the medical field, the cultivation of significant professional qualities is crucial for the effective performance of a specialist [22; 23]. However, the selection of applicants to medical universities currently relies solely on academic performance, disregarding the personal qualities of future doctors—a situation that is similarly observed in other countries [26].

The selection of essential professional qualities is based on the functional composition of medical activities. This involves complex types of labor within the "human-human" system, necessitating a broad education, a drive for professional growth, and the ability to perform diverse and intricately structured methods and techniques. These professional activities place specific demands on the worker [13, p. 130]. The study addresses the problem of a discrepancy between the need to develop a set of Professionally Important Qualities (PIQs)

¹ Гозман Л.Я. выполняет функции иностранного агента.

for future doctors and the lack of psychological and pedagogical support for this process in medical schools. The study hypothesizes that psychological and pedagogical support for medical students will transform their self-perception as professional practitioners and foster traits associated with a self-actualizing personality, such as self-acceptance, self-esteem, synergy, and spontaneity.

Numerous normative documents, particularly the concept for developing continuous medical and pharmaceutical education in the Russian Federation up to 2025, emphasize promoting professional and personal growth through educational programs and independent intellectual activities (self-education, informal, or spontaneous education). The objective of personal growth and self-realization is highlighted. Besides developing infrastructure and technologies for continuous adult education to ensure personal growth and self-realization across various adult categories, it is crucial that specialists are motivated to engage in individual cognitive activities and strive for professional improvement [19].

According to E.A. Klimov's classification, medical activity belongs to the socioeconomic type due to its foundation in the complex "doctor-patient" relationship, encompassing professional, moral, ethical, aesthetic, economic, and legal dimensions. Key components include a creative mind, the ability to predict and model various probable outcomes due to non-standard situations and the unstructured nature of medical work, and the ability to listen and understand others. This requires observation, responsiveness, and tact, reflecting high competence in communication and deontological qualities. Additionally, a developed mindset, high cognitive motivation, a desire for knowledge, and qualities like humanism, duty, and altruism are essential [10; 11].

Self-actualization refers to the capacity to independently make life choices and achieve goals. According to E.E. Vakhromov, its goal is the fullest development of abilities and psychological growth, achievable only through socially oriented activities [3]. I.A. Ankindinova defines self-actualization as realizing one's abilities and personal potential, driving both professional and personal growth [2].

Independent activity and the pursuit of one's highest potential lead to self-realization, an ethically meaningful, eudemonic lifestyle. Personal growth and fulfillment are central aspects of this process, achievable through self-directed efforts and realizing professional potential [28]. Self-actualizing personality traits empower future doctors to interact actively and creatively with their environment, develop a humane approach to patients, and offer avenues for personal and professional growth. For physicians, important self-actualizing traits include self-acceptance, self-esteem, synergy, and spontaneity within the PIQ complex. These traits, identified through theoretical analysis and confirmed by practical research, enhance the effectiveness of doctors in the expert group who possess them [5].

Methods

In our study devoted to psychological and pedagogical support of the formation of professionally important qualities of the personality of future doctors, conducted from 2016

to 2020, under the concept of a set of professionally important qualities of the personality of a future doctor [7], we proposed a set of personal and volitional qualities, traits of self-actualizing personality, and value orientations.

In order to implement the formation of the above-mentioned traits, we have developed and justified a model of psychological and pedagogical support for the formation of a set of professionally important personality traits in future doctors. The characteristic feature of this model is the presence of a clear structure of components that are related to each other and ordered. The model outlines the following components: the goal, which is to develop a set of professionally important qualities in future doctors; specific tasks; the targeted qualities, which include personal traits, characteristics of a self-actualizing personality, volitional qualities, and a value orientation towards serving others; the approaches used to cultivate these qualities; the psychological and pedagogical conditions required; the content and tools—specifically, the program for psychological and pedagogical support; the forms and methods of implementation; and the expected outcomes [6].

As part of the study, a formative experiment was conducted with 180 fifth-year medical university students (average age 24.7, SD = 3.41; 102 women and 78 men) from the Faculties of Medicine and Dentistry. The experimental group, consisting of 90 randomly selected students (59% women and 41% men, including 45 from the Faculty of Medicine and 45 from the Faculty of Dentistry), participated in a 144-hour program of psychological and pedagogical support aimed at developing professionally important qualities (PIQs) in future doctors. The control group also included 90 students (54% women and 46% men) but did not participate in the program. Diagnostics of self-actualization levels were conducted for both groups one week before the program began. The experimental group attended classes twice a week for three academic hours over six months, while the control group did not participate. The program, designed by the authors, comprised three blocks: educational, corrective-developmental, and consultative, each employing specific forms and methods of work [6]. Through their participation, students developed an understanding of PIQs and their roles as effective professionals. Activities such as trainings, reflective exercises, case studies, and situational tasks encouraged the development of self-esteem, sensitivity, interpersonal skills, flexible behavior, creativity, spontaneity, and synergy. At the end of the cycle, both the experimental and control groups were re-diagnosed to assess the level of self-actualization and its various characteristics using the E. Sjostrom Self-Actualization Test (SAT) adapted by L.Y. Gozman and M.V. Kroz.[8]. The reliability of the results was verified using mathematical statistics methods (Wilcoxon and Mann-Whitney criteria).

Results

Before the experiment, researchers observed no statistically significant differences in self-actualization indicators between the control and experimental groups.

Table 1 presents the indicators of a self-actualizing personality before and after

participation in a program designed to help future doctors develop essential career-related personality traits.

Statistical analysis using the Wilcoxon criterion revealed significant improvements in self-actualizing personality indicators such as self-acceptance ($Z = -3.625$; $p \leq 0.01$), self-esteem ($Z = -4.359$; $p \leq 0.01$), and synergy ($Z = -4.524$; $p \leq 0.01$). There were also notable trends for spontaneity ($Z = -3.602$; $p \leq 0.1$), contact ($Z = -1.762$; $p \leq 0.1$), and creativity ($Z = -3.662$; $p \leq 0.1$).

Qualitative analysis showed that participation in the psychological and pedagogical support program significantly increased the number of students with high scores in self-acceptance, rising from 13% to 40%.

The percentage of students with high self-esteem in the experimental group increased from 27% to 67%.

As a result of the experiment, the proportion of future doctors with high synergy scores rose from 40% to 70%.

Additionally, 87% of students exhibited high levels of spontaneity after the program, compared to 73% before the experiment.

Participation in the support program also increased the number of future doctors with high scores in contact skills, essential for communicative abilities and competence, from 43% to 60%.

The number of students in the experimental group with high creativity scores significantly rose from 50% to 77%.

Table 1
Dynamics of indicators of self-actualizing personality (in %) in students before and after participation in the program of psychological and pedagogical support of the formation of a set of professionally important qualities of personality of future doctors

	Before			After		
	low	average	high	low	average	high
Time orientation	30	50	20	20	40	40
Support	6,7	63,3	30	0	60	40
Value orientations	0	30	70	0	20	80
Behavioral flexibility	16,7	13,3	70	13,3	10	76,7
Sensitivity	13,3	10	76,7	0	13,3	86,7
Spontaneity	13,3	13,3	73,4	6,7	6,7	86,6
Self-esteem	16,7	56,7	26,6	10	23,3	66,7

Self-acceptance	43,3	43,3	13,4	30	30	40
View of human nature	13,3	70	16,7	6,7	53,3	40
Synergy	30	30	40	10	20	70
Acceptance of aggression	30	13,3	46,7	10	23,3	66,7
Contactability	13,3	43,3	43,4	10	30	60
Cognitive needs	0	20	80	0	16,7	83,3
Creativity	30	20	50	13,3	10	76,7

Researchers used the Mann-Whitney criteria to compare self-actualization indicators in the control and experimental groups before and after the experiment. Table 2 presents sample indicators with significant statistical differences and a tendency toward differences.

In the control group, repeated measurements showed no significant differences ($p \geq 0.05$).

Table 2
Comparative analysis of sample indicators of self-actualizing personality in the control and experimental groups before and after the experimental work

	group	Before experimental work (no differences)			After experimental work (differences revealed)				
		Average rank	Σ ranks	U	p	Average rank	Σ ranks	U	p
Spontaneity	EG	11,05	110,50	44,50	,674	13,65	136,50	18,50	,015
	KG	9,95	99,50			7,35	73,50		
Self-esteem	EG	10,00	100,00	45,00	,704	13,40	134,00	21,00	,028
	KG	11,00	110,00			7,60	76,00		
Synergy	EG	10,40	104,00	49,00	,939	13,00	130,00	25,00	,057
	KG	10,60	106,00			8,00	80,00		
Contactability	EG	10,00	100,00	45,00	,702	13,15	131,50	23,50	,043
	KG	11,00	110,00			7,85	78,50		

Discussion of results

Self-acceptance is an important condition for the self-actualization of a future doctor's personality, as it indicates the ability to accept oneself, taking into account one's own shortcomings and weaknesses, the adequacy of self-esteem, and confidence in decisions concerning patient management tactics. According to F. Perls, every individual from birth tries to actualize himself "as they are," i.e., to actualize the "image of themselves" and use their own growth potential [15]. "Be your true self," thereby becoming fully human, as C. Rogers believed [16]. Self-realized people are completely content with themselves as they

are, full of quirks, imperfections, and flaws. It reconciles them with their own selves and their relationships with people [24].

Self-esteem, the ability to recognize and appreciate one's positive traits, plays a crucial role in forming a doctor's "self-concept" [12]. The strength of self-concept, self-respect, self-esteem, self-importance, and self-sufficiency are key personal resources that help doctors overcome professional stress [4].

The complex set of professionally important qualities (PIQ) for future doctors includes synergy, which enables them to perceive the world and people holistically. This holistic perception will help them to understand the relationship between opposites, such as the spiritual and the physical, within a person. It is crucial for doctors to analyze often contradictory information, interpret results, and understand the impact of the psyche on disease and vice versa. The founder of the theory of self-actualization, A. Maslow, refers to the characteristics of self-actualizing people as an adequate perception of reality, finding the new in the known, and a sense of community with humanity as a whole [17]. A high level of synergy allows individuals to effectively utilize their strengths, abilities, skills, and resources in unique situations to achieve both external and internal harmony [18]. Modern foreign authors also note that the "spirituality" of doctors is associated with the interpretation of patients' illnesses and can act as a bridge that promotes the development of relationships with the patient [27].

The data on increased spontaneity indicators do not show that we lack the ability to think about purposeful action. It reveals the possibility of not calculating in advance the type of behavior necessary when assisting patients in emergency and urgent situations and taking responsibility for changing tactics. Spontaneity is the suddenness and unpredictability associated with self-realization and expression. E. Sjostrom, among the characteristics of a self-actualizing personality ("actualizer"), notes such characteristics as honesty, openness, sincerity, and freedom of expression of one's potentials [21].

Sensitivity, a key aspect of self-actualization, indicates how well a future doctor understands their own needs and feelings, as well as their capacity for reflection. It also demonstrates their ability to respond to various stimuli in their future professional activities.

A doctor's behavioral flexibility determines their ability to adapt to changing circumstances and approach problem-solving creatively. This flexibility shines most during professional stress or unexpected events that require new behaviors. It reflects how well future doctors can implement their values in their actions, interact with others, and respond promptly and appropriately to evolving situations. And to do this, a technologically equipped doctor should not only treat, but also be able to talk to his patient, and this is something that has to be learned [9]. In the context of self-actualization, contactability is considered not only as a communicative ability or skill of effective communication but also as a prosocial attitude of a person.

Creativity, as a quality of self-actualizing personality, stipulates the ability of future doctors to analyze information, understand cause-and-effect relationships, make non-standard inferences, go beyond standard models, and develop and apply innovative methods and techniques in their work [20]. This concerns the expression of creative orientation in future doctors' personalities.

Conclusions

Psychological and educational support during medical school significantly improved future doctors' self-actualization indicators, which are part of their Professional Important Qualities (PIQ). The experimental group showed statistically significant improvements in these indicators, demonstrating the effectiveness of the author's support program. Although these results affirm the program's success, further confirmation using the self-actualization method is necessary to validate the effectiveness of psychological and pedagogical support for students.

The professionally important characteristics of the self-actualizing personality of future doctors are the personal striving for maximum identification and presentation of individual abilities, as well as for further self-development and education. Personality development stimulates the transformation of professional activity, filling it with new meaning through the process of personalization [14]. These indicators reveal the personality orientation of future doctors. They provide a model for their interactions with patients, as well as their professional and personal characteristics.

The research and data generated are powerful tools for the professional development of medical students, residents, and practitioners at all stages of their careers.

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МЕТОДОЛОГИЯ И ТЕХНОЛОГИЯ ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ | METHODOLOGY AND TECHNOLOGY OF EDUCATION

Comparison of Conditions for Organizing Joint Activities in Face-to-Face and Digital Spaces

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This article provides an overview of a pilot study that compares the features of organizing joint activities in the digital environment among students in grades 7-9 and the theoretical basis for organizing joint activities. 36 high school students took part in the study. The study revealed that the development of digital media contributes to the organization of joint activities in the digital environment, transforming symbols into signs. Groups using digital tools have shown high efficiency in both the organization of collaboration and its results. During distance learning, students spent the greatest amount of time on the Internet, in particular when considering the “medium-time” criterion. The Jamboard has become an important tool for planning and organizing student collaboration. The functions of turning on and off audio and video contributed to self-organization and the formation of cultural experience of the group. The study revealed a number of psychological characteristics of organizing joint activities in the digital environment, which differ from the theoretical foundations of organizing joint activities in the face-to-face space. For this purpose, a socio-genetic method was used, in which students in grades 7-9 completed the “ship model” task. The analysis allows us to conclude that the organization of joint activities in the digital space is due to the internalization of digital means by students and, on their basis, the construction of common systems of orientation in the digital environment. Based on a pilot study, recommendations for teachers and parents on organizing joint activities using digital technologies for students in grades 7-9 are highlighted.

Keywords: cultural-historical psychology; joint activities; genetic modeling method; digital space; organization of joint activities.

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Сравнение условий организации совместной деятельности в очном и цифровом пространстве

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В статье представлен обзор pilotного исследования, в котором сопоставляются особенности организации совместной деятельности в цифровой среде среди учащихся 7-9 классов и теоретические основания для организации совместной деятельности. В исследовании приняли участие 36 учеников средней школы. В ходе исследования выяснилось, что освоение цифровых средств способствует организации совместной деятельности в цифровой среде, преобразуя символы в знаки. Группы, использующие цифровые средства, показали высокую эффективность как в организации совместной работы, так и в ее результатах. При дистанционном обучении учащиеся наибольшее количество времени проводили в интернете, в частности, при рассмотрении критерия «средство-время». Доска Jamboard стала важным инструментом для планирования и организации совместной деятельности учащихся. Функции включения и выключения аудио и видео способствовали самоорганизации и формированию культурного опыта группы. Проведенное исследование выявило ряд психологических характеристик организации совместной деятельности в цифровой среде, отличающихся от теоретических основ организации совместной деятельности в очном пространстве. Для этого использовался социально-генетический метод, в рамках которого учащиеся 7-9 классов проходили задание «модель корабля». Анализ позволяет сделать вывод, что организация совместной деятельности в цифровом пространстве обусловлена интериоризацией цифровых средств учащимися и на их основе построением общих систем ориентирования в цифровой среде. На основе pilotного исследования выделены рекомендации в организации совместной деятельности с применением цифровых технологий для учащихся 7-9 классов для учителей и родителей.

Ключевые слова: культурно-историческая психология; совместная деятельность; генетико-моделирующий метод; цифровое пространство; организация совместной деятельности.

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Introduction

Modern education constantly struggles with digitizing the learning process. Numerous methods of organizing the educational process and implementing pedagogical tasks are proposed, ranging from radically conservative to fully digital formats of learning. Hence, the relevance of researching the features of organizing collaborative activities in a digital environment arises [5; 8].

By middle school, adolescents have many needs that can only be met in the digital space: creating profiles on social networks, participating in online events, self-identification in virtual communities, as well as filling their cultural and informational space. This allows each student to express their interests and exchange knowledge and ideas with other participants in the online space [1; 3]. On the one hand, the ability to learn at one's own pace and direction allows each student to develop according to their individual needs. On the other hand, the network environment also promotes collaborative work and experience exchange among students, which can be an important experience for developing collective skills and collaboration abilities. Investigating successful forms of collaborative activities will reveal features of organizing collaborative activities. Due to the peculiarities of the leading activities of middle school students, the educational process with digital means has several disadvantages. For example, intimate personal communication in social networks becomes predominant, which can act as an antagonist to the need to communicate in the task process, eliminating the necessity to strive for it in the educational process since the student can communicate not with the task participant but with someone else, which is impossible to track. These disadvantages are limitations for researching digital forms of collaborative activities [2; 6].

Educational technologies cannot fully compete with video games and entertainment services located in the digital environment. When faced with learning difficulties, it is easier for students to find ways to avoid them than to overcome them, highlighting the importance of organizing collaborative activities in a digital environment to involve participants in the educational process and develop self-organization skills. Face-to-face education has several strong advantages over online education: the possibility for students to communicate with each other, non-verbal communication, and the possibility of self-identification in society. This list of mismatches between leading activities and digital learning methods requires a revision of digital education methods [7; 9].

For the successful implementation of digitization in middle school, it is important to consider the principles of cultural-historical psychology. Collaborative activities developed within this approach provide students with the opportunity to interact and jointly solve tasks according to their developing needs and abilities. This creates conditions for active participation in learning and the development of social skills [11; 17].

There are several problems when transferring face-to-face education to an online format, including the role of regulators and executive bodies in the learning process, as well as issues of criticism and control. In online education, students and teachers face new challenges related

to organizing the learning process, assessing performance, and interacting remotely. It is necessary to consider the age characteristics of students when developing and implementing online educational programs to ensure their effectiveness and accessibility for different age groups. In online education, problems arise with the individualization of the educational process, considering the age characteristics of students. Solving these problems requires a comprehensive approach and consideration of the specifics of each age group [6; 10; 20].

Yu.V. Gromyko, A.A. Margolis, and V.V. Rubtsov researched approaches to creating an effective model of the "School of the Future" using cultural-historical theory and the activity approach as a foundation. In their proposed model, the emphasis is on forming a communicative and activity-based semiotic environment, which includes various child-adult communities and types of activities. Investigating the features of organizing collaborative activities using digital means will be an important step in building a digital platform in the "School of the Future."

Conditions for the Emergence of Joint Activity

To study the methods of interaction among students (aged 12–15) in solving educational tasks using digital tools, it is necessary to understand the theoretical positions on joint educational activities of schoolchildren developed by V.V. Davydov, V.V. Rubtsov, G.G. Kravtsov, G.A. Tsukerman, and others. Additionally, the results of studies on the peculiarities of organizing joint educational activities using digital tools by V.V. Rubtsov, A.A. Margolis, A.G. Kritsky, V.S. Ageev, and A.V. Konokotin are also relevant.

The "Ship Model" was designed based on the socio-genetic research method, which is a variant of L.S. Vygotsky's genetic-modeling method, developed by V.V. Rubtsov, Yu.V. Gromyko, A.V. Konokotin, and others. Below are the main theoretical positions important for modeling conditions and their analysis in the process of a pilot study.

To study the psychological features of organizing joint actions of students in solving educational tasks in a digital environment, it is necessary to identify the conditions for the implementation of joint activities — educational actions. Organizing children's educational actions in the process of joint activities is a primary task. For this, it is necessary that specific states of the object are differentiated by the child and become an orientational basis for action. Thanks to this, we achieve stability in the sensory fabric of consciousness, according to A.N. Leontiev, in the general orientational basis of content. We get the objectivity of action, which is revealed in the process of testing the goal; this leads to the birth of purposeful action related to the object in the studied object [15; 16].

Joint action includes the following components:

1. The distribution of initial actions and operations is determined by the system of transformations that condition the search for the principle of constructing the studied object.
2. The exchange of methods of action is dictated by the necessity to transform various methods of action to obtain a cumulative product of the activity.
3. Mutual understanding is dictated by the nature of incorporating various methods of action into joint activity. Mutual understanding allows establishing the correspondence of one's own action and its product to the actions of other participants.

Among the means ensuring the implementation of joint activities, the most important from a

psychological point of view are communication and reflection.

Communication is necessary for distribution, exchange, and mutual understanding. Thanks to communication, the planning of conditions adequate to the educational task for the activity and the choice of appropriate methods of action occur [15].

Reflection – allows establishing the participant's attitude toward their own action and ensuring the transformation of this action in accordance with the content and form of their joint activity [15].

The distribution of methods of action and their exchange should reveal the connection between the substantive and operational components of action. This requirement is met by the method where the organization of joint actions is aimed at searching for, identifying, fixing, and modeling the principle of systematizing the set of objects [15].

Components of collectively-distributed action:

1. Sign schemes (models) of activity organization: these schemes fix the operational composition of individual actions of participants, the method of dividing these actions depending on the substantive content of the task, and the role of each participant in identifying the orientational basis of action.

2. The connection between operations performed by participants: the presence of connected operations, correlated with the changing properties of the object, ensures the distribution of actions and the mutual understanding of participants in the process of jointly solving tasks.

3. Conditions under which the introduction of means of organizing collectively-distributed action confronts participants with the need to seek the foundations for dividing actions and coordinating them in the substantive content of the studied object [15].

4. The destruction of unambiguous correspondence between the action scheme and the structure of the properties of the studied object leads to the limitation of the action by the corresponding substantive content.

5. The presence of gaps in this correspondence confronts participants with the need to search for new forms of activity organization.

Thus, collectively distributed action implies the division of participants' actions and their coordination in accordance with the substantive content of the studied object. This division occurs based on sign schemes of activity organization, which fix the connection between operations performed by participants. The presence of gaps in this connection leads to the need for redistributing operations among participants and searching for new forms of activity organization.

The use of schemes as a means of organizing activities allows for the creation of experimental situations in which it is possible to study the patterns of adults organizing the joint actions of children, as well as the methods of group work of the children themselves. Additionally, using schemes, it is possible to fix the emergence of educational-cognitive actions and their features [14].

In the joint activities of children, it is necessary to correspond to two important stages. At the first stage, called the training stage, the adult organizes collectively-distributed action among a group of children. Based on the action scheme, the adult organizes the communication and cooperation of children as a process of transforming the given structures of the studied object and corresponding models [14].

At the second stage, called the control stage, the emerging educational-cognitive action is studied. The features of this action are revealed when observing the joint trials performed by the participants, the substantive orientation of actions, and also when studying how the activity scheme proposed by

the adult is used by the children [14].

In the process of organizing joint actions, an important condition is the emergence of the child's educational-cognitive activity, in which the disclosure and correlation of meanings between various actions in relation to the object and the corresponding properties of its structure should occur. For this, it is necessary to organize the distribution and exchange of methods of action among the participants. Vitaly Vladimirovich Rubtsov suggested considering the following psychological components that ensure the effectiveness of joint work [13]:

1. Joint understanding and a common goal. An important point is the joint understanding of the goals and objectives among the group members. People working together must share a common goal and see how their efforts can contribute to its achievement.
2. Distribution of roles. Effective joint work requires a clear distribution of roles and responsibilities among the participants. Everyone should know what is expected of them and be ready to fulfill their duties.
3. Interdependence. Participants must understand that their success depends on the success of others. This motivates them to cooperate and interact to achieve a common goal.
4. Openness and communication. Openness in communication and the ability to express ideas and opinions are important for successful joint work. Good communication helps participants understand each other and solve problems that arise.
5. Joint learning. Joint learning and the exchange of knowledge and experience among participants contribute to increasing collective intelligence. By learning together, they can solve tasks more effectively.
6. Conflict resolution. It is important to learn to resolve conflicts constructively. Conflicts can arise in any group, and the ability to resolve them helps maintain the effectiveness of joint work.

Study on the Features of Organizing Collaborative Activities in a Digital Environment

For the study, a group of 36 students from grades 7-9 from different cities was assembled: Moscow, Krasnoyarsk, and the Moscow Region. The study included 14 girls and 22 boys. The sample comprised 19 students from the 7th grade (8 girls, 11 boys), 12 from the 8th grade (4 girls, 8 boys), and 5 students from the 9th grade (2 girls, 3 boys). In 8 out of 9 groups, the students were from the same class, with one group being mixed: three students from the 7th grade and one from the 9th grade.

The study was conducted using Google Meet. 31 respondents participated using a personal computer, while the remaining 5 participants used a tablet or smartphone.

Students were asked to build a model ship, considering the rules specified in the task conditions. Task conditions: "Dear participants, you are invited to build a model ship, considering four main parameters: the size of the sails should match the three cuts of the ship's stern; it is important to note that the weight of one mast is 400 kg; you need to build the ship's stern, for which you are provided a formula to find the volume $V=d*a*h$, where V is the volume, d is the length, a is the width, h is the height; calculate the ship's cargo capacity using the formula. The cargo capacity of the boat can be calculated using the formula: $Q_1=1/5*(\rho*V - G_1)$, where ρ is the density of water, V is the volume of the hull, m³, G₁ is the mass of the boat, including permanently attached equipment, and maximize the ship's load capacity. I suggest you divide the roles among yourselves for this task. You have 60 minutes to complete the task. You may use any resources. If you have questions, you can ask them now or during the work process." It is important to note that the role distribution implied task division

among the students, which was additionally communicated when a participant had difficulty understanding the instructions. The task was considered completed when the model was presented without contradictions. To find the correspondence between the algebraic model and the graphical one, students were provided with basic digital tools: chat, video, audio, and an online board. Students could use not only the provided formulas but also search the internet for any information to help solve the task. On average, students took 45 to 60 minutes to complete the task.

Tools used during the sessions:

1. Interactive whiteboard Jamboard;
2. Chat;
3. Raising hand;
4. Turning video on and off;
5. Information search tools (internet);
6. Emotions (Emojis);
7. Screen sharing.

For the study and analysis of the psychological features of organizing collaborative activities using digital tools, the theoretical foundations identified at the beginning were used. Attention was paid to components such as the distribution of initial actions and operations; exchange of action methods; achieving mutual understanding; communication and reflection; the difficulties encountered and how students overcame them in the digital environment.

Students could use the internet, which often had a slowing effect on the team's work, as students found it challenging to navigate a large amount of new information. Consequently, this affected team work: the number of ideas about the type of ship was excessive and hindered decision-making, and participants' ideas and comments regarding the process often caused delays. Subsequently, one participant often took on a leadership role to make the final decision. There were situations where students could not coordinate their actions, leading to group confusion, but this difficulty was overcome using digital tools.

Case illustration: A team of four students faced difficulties. While searching for information about the type of ship, each student offered their ideas, diluting the specific concept of the ship. Another difficulty was that students could not work individually as each had to orient themselves to another team member's results. Additionally, disagreements arose – two students coordinated without considering the other two, leading to results that did not match others, necessitating recalculations and resulting in conflicts. Students often interrupted each other, trying to speak simultaneously.

Initial overcoming of difficulties, based on communication, formed common linguistic models among participants, which later became an orientational basis for joint actions. Such linguistic models mostly described the use of digital tools, for example, links, editing tools for the board or chat. Secondary overcoming of difficulties occurred when students started using tools like raising a hand for speaking turns and commenting in the chat while one student proposed an idea. Students used emojis to approve or disapprove of others' decisions. Sixteen students used these tools too frequently, creating significant informational noise. The number of digital tools used increased until it became excessive, leading participants to agree on rules regulating their collaboration. Overcoming difficulties was accompanied by the ability to reflect and undo recent actions, which only the participant who performed the action could do, promoting active involvement from each participant.

During the task, several groups showed a pattern in using digital tools. Tools like turning video

and audio on and off were used most frequently. The chat served as an orientational basis for actions, as students wrote their intentions and referred to it as an organizing tool, often containing links, important notes, and summaries of agreements.

Identifying patterns in organizing collaborative activities using digital tools showed that students initially developed common linguistic models in their communication, facilitating orientation in the digital space. When mastering digital tools, students faced their excessiveness, primarily confusing 7th-grade groups, overcome by leadership positions among students proposing communication and work rules.

The distribution of initial actions occurred at the stage of forming a common goal and role distribution. Participants faced difficulties in communication and reflection while performing operations, leading to confusion and a stage where students established rules for organizing collaborative activities. Organizing communication and reflection helped overcome the difficulty of insufficient mastery of digital tools, with students exchanging action methods. In all groups, the Jamboard digital tool was used not only for work schematization but also as an organizing tool for establishing participants' action sequences, leading to a connection between participants' operations in model construction and an increase in joint actions. Jamboard, comprising several slides, was used for real-time activity visualization and planning, with 8 out of 9 groups showing the task progress, and each participant orienting to the board accessible to all. Notably, a significant difference was the absence of physical limitations for viewing other students' results. Thus, after the 10th minute, the most pronounced communication accompanied by discussion among participants was observed. Students frequently moved from one board to another, updating information. Most groups had a common board, serving as a consolidation of work results, often leading to conflicts between students' results. Eight students added pictures, formulas, and links to the materials they used. An example from an 8th-grade group: a student added a ship model as an image and found a ship description on a website, reflected in his calculations. Notably, students visiting the board also accessed this resource and adjusted their work to improve group cooperation.

Using digital tools for organizing collaborative actions led to mutual understanding during task completion, helping overcome conflicts during operations exchange. Participants, mastering new digital tools, used them to create new forms of organizing collaborative activities. There was a division of tasks, with some children calculating sail height and width concerning the ship's stern, while others calculated the stern's height and width to determine cargo capacity. They also searched for images and drew models.

Consequently, the emergence of jointly distributed actions occurred during schematization. Participants, implementing new tools, interacted, exchanging ideas. For example, when adding an image, another participant could change its size or position on the board, add drawings, sign, correct the model, or ask participants to find another image. Interaction efficiency was achieved when the children had a certain number of digital tools.

- Sasha, add the second mast, but smaller, I found a frigate" (when students used Jamboard).
- I'll add a ship image, Misha, make sure everything matches.
- I want us to have a flag, let's make it a pirate one.

Students often provided each other with tool descriptions and instructions for their practical application, increasing the quantity and quality of joint work. Many difficulties can be categorized as primary and secondary. Primary difficulties, such as communication, reflection, organizing

collaborative work, and informational noise, hindered students from starting work. These difficulties were overcome by forming group rules and using certain digital tools as orientational bases for actions: turning the microphone on and off, using the chat, and the board for recording results. Secondary difficulties appeared at a more complex level of interpersonal interaction, requiring students to coordinate their actions for joint work. Students exchanged their results, and in all groups, they worked in pairs, leading to conflicts in final results.

Twelve participants used chat for communication much more often than the microphone, then moved to verbal communication. It can be assumed that chat is an important part of student communication, as thoughts and ideas sent to the chat were considered over time, something not achievable in face-to-face work. Students using chat to communicate with each other had more opportunities to participate in group activities. Thus, while one student spoke, another could write in the chat, immediately receiving a response from a third student. Two dialogues occurred simultaneously, with two students communicating orally and two in writing.

Thus, organizing collaborative activities is possible when mastering a set of digital tools, with the key being the formation of a common team work culture, imposing restrictions on digital tools' use.

Students allocated roles independently of the task at hand. Four groups relied on the ship's stern, three on its load capacity, and two out of nine groups decided to base their work on the cargo itself, which is not connected to additional components of the ship affecting load capacity. A leadership position was more often observed among girls in the 7th grade, but not in the 8th and 9th grades, where boys took the initiative. Decision-making was more effective in the group where participants communicated not only verbally but also used chat and a board, and could quickly move from one slide to another. No barriers were observed in mastering digital tools within the groups. All difficulties were overcome through communication and role distribution if one of the participants was unable to perform certain actions. It is important to note that seven students accompanied their task with verbal control, which was audible to other participants of the meeting; 40% of participants got distracted and switched to communication during their task if they were interested in socializing.

Conflicts arose during the task-solving process: after role distribution, some groups encountered situations where the conditions of one part of the ship did not match with others, and students had to negotiate and exchange ideas. There were instances where chat messages or raised hands were not noticed by other participants, indicating that communication tools were ineffective.

Some conflicts were unresolved, and certain participants began to disrupt others. In two groups, an activity form without orientation towards other students was observed; students worked mainly individually, hardly using digital tools. Changes were observed when schematic results emerged, but two groups still could not reach a solution and build a model. Students' speech more often contained emotionally-personal components of difficulties unrelated to the subject and operational structures of difficulty.

Discussion of results

Digital tools contribute to the organization of collaborative activities in an online space, showing a match between the conditions for organizing collaborative activities in theoretical literature analysis dedicated to the study of collaboration, and the stages during the pilot study. A significant difference is the change in sequence; study participants initially face difficulties when the tools used by one participant can hinder others. Groups need to use new digital tools as organizing means during their

adaptation; thus, students agree with each other on their use in collaborative activities.

Before transitioning to learning actions, students mastered digital tools, which became an orienting basis for finding the task content. Once the symbolic tools in the online space were mastered, these tools became the instrumental basis for collaborative activities, which aligns with the foundations of O.V. Rubtsova's work [17].

Most groups actively studied new tools that helped demonstrate the result. Thus, there was a trend in groups to add images to demonstrate their ship model and take notes on their ideas in chat and notes. It can be assumed that all tools facilitated communication among participants, mediating the collaborative activity of building a graphical model. Hand-raising, microphone toggling, and using emojis for approval or disapproval formed the culture and organization of group work. However, these tools could be used excessively, hindering teamwork, and participants needed to establish new rules for working with digital tools. Each group exhibited specific cultural features in their use of digital tools.

The use of digital tools contributed to the development of such aspects of students' collaborative activities as communication, cooperation, joint problem-solving, reflection, exchange of operations, and overcoming conflict situations. Students began using chat and screen sharing to communicate with each other, more frequently coordinating their actions and collaborating in problem-solving during the schematization of calculation results.

Furthermore, the study showed that adolescents quickly and efficiently master digital tools. Students adapt to new digital tools for use in organizing collaborative activities.

However, problems also arise in the process of collaborative activities in a digital environment: the lack of digital tool skills—9 students lacked the necessary digital tool skills, complicating collaborative activities. Conflict situations may arise due to differences in opinions and approaches to task-solving. To address these issues, it is necessary to train students in digital tool skills and develop a culture of collaborative activities among them.

During the sessions, communication was mediated by tools such as chat and microphone, which became regulated by the process participants. Screen sharing and emojis were used as symbolic tools. The Jamboard was used by students as an interaction tool for building the model. Video toggling acted as a symbolic tool since when one participant turned off the video, other participants followed; two groups agreed initially not to turn on the video. Chat served as a communication tool where participants wrote their ideas during the model-building process. It was observed that participants wrote thoughts in the chat during verbal communication.

Study limitations:

1. Use of the Google Meet program: some participants might have experienced difficulties using the program, which could have affected their results.
2. Use of digital tools: participants might have had difficulties with connection and accessing necessary digital tools, as well as difficulties using them, and the lack of convenient technical means for managing digital tools, which could have affected the individual contribution and overall group results.

Conclusions and Recommendations

1. Mastering digital tools involves transforming symbols into signs, facilitating the organization of collaborative activities in a digital environment.

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2. Groups working with digital tools demonstrated high efficiency both in organizing collaborative activities, mediated by digital tools, and in the effectiveness of such work.

3. When working remotely, students spent the most time on the digital tool internet, which they primarily turned to when considering the "tool-time" criterion.

4. The Jamboard became a means for organizing and planning students' collaborative activities. Tools such as turning audio and video on and off contributed to students' self-organization and the formation of the group's cultural experience.

5. The study, focused on analyzing the features of organizing collaborative activities in a digital space for students in grades 7-9, revealed several psychological characteristics differing from the theoretical foundations of organizing collaborative activities in a face-to-face environment. A socio-genetic method was used, during which students completed the task "ship model".

The results of the pilot study can be used in the future to develop a methodology for organizing collaborative activities for middle school students using digital tools, which will be useful for teachers, parents, social service workers for adolescents, and psychologists. It is planned to expand the sample and conduct a study using tools that reveal participants' readiness for collaborative activities in both face-to-face and digital environments.

Recommendations for organizing collaborative activities in a digital environment:

1. Provide participants with the opportunity to master digital tools.
2. Promote communication and reflection among students.
3. Timely identify the excessiveness of digital tools in students' activities.
4. Conduct preventive measures in mastering digital tools for students in grades 7-9.
5. Select educational tasks that require skills such as communication and cooperation among students.

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ПСИХОЛОГИЧЕСКИЙ ИНСТРУМЕНТАРИЙ | PSYCHOLOGICAL TOOLS

Psychometry of Latent Characteristics: Tools, Problems of Rank Information Processing, Solutions

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The paper examines the problems of correctness and adequacy of the use of psychometric tools in psychosocial research and applications. The main attention is paid to the problem of correct processing of rank information, which is non-numeric information that does not allow the use of classical mathematical operations, starting with the addition operation. The approach of forming the results of processing expert, ranked information in the scale of relations based on the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP), which includes a measurement apparatus and decision-making algorithms, is presented. An example is given that simulates the situation of an expert council and demonstrates unacceptable contradictions that arise with the "numerical" approach to processing rank information. The algorithms of the AHP normative approach are presented, which allow obtaining numerical, personalized assessments of psychosocial characteristics. The basic concepts of the Rasch Measurement (RM) for comparing the capabilities of AHP and RM in psychosocial applications are described. Some critical remarks about the methods of psychometry are considered. It is shown that the origins of the criticisms are associated with a superficial understanding of the basic concepts of psychometric measurements and the scope of their applications, as well as with elementary errors when using the apparatus of psychometric instruments.

Keywords: psychometry; rank; relationship scale; fundamental scale; Analytic Hierarchy Process; Rasch Measurement.

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В работе рассматриваются проблемы корректности и адекватности применения психометрических инструментов в психосоциальных исследованиях и приложениях. Основное внимание уделяется проблеме корректной обработки ранговой информации, являющейся нечисловой информацией, которая не допускает использования классических математических операций, начиная с операции сложения. Представлен подхօд формирования результатов обработки экспертной, ранговой информации в шкале отношений на основе метода анализа иерархий (МАИ), который включает аппарат измерений и алгоритмы принятия решений. Приводится пример, моделирующий ситуацию экспертного консилиума и демонстрирующий недопустимые противоречия, возникающие при «числовом» подходе к обработке ранговой информации. Представлены алгоритмы нормативного подхода МАИ, позволяющие получать численные, персонализированные оценки психосоциальных характеристик. Описаны базовые концепции метрической системы Раша (MCP) для сравнения возможностей МАИ и MCP в психосоциальных приложениях. Рассматриваются некоторые критические замечания в адрес методов психометрии. Показано, что истоки критических замечаний связаны с поверхностным пониманием основных концепций психометрических измерений и области их применений, а также с элементарными ошибками при использовании аппарата психометрических инструментов.

Ключевые слова: психометрия; ранг; шкала отношений; фундаментальная шкала; метод анализа иерархий; метрическая система Раша.

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Introduction

In psychology, psychiatry, neurology, pedagogy, and sociology, psychometric ranking instruments are used to measure and assess the level of expression of latent characteristics of a person (patient). These characteristics include intellectual abilities, neurocognitive functions, aggression, depression, anxiety, stigma, interpersonal relationships, and other personality traits.

At present, two main directions can be distinguished in the use of psychometric instruments, which we rely on to illustrate and solve the tasks set within this work.

1. Traditional direction

Information obtained from ranking psychometric scales, tests, and questionnaires is considered (without any additional conditions and considerations, particularly probabilistic in nature) as numerical information that can be processed by any mathematical means.

Within such a numerical approach to ranking information, researchers in their works operate with such impermissible characteristics as the sum of points and average points on the items of diagnostic scales and subscales, variance and standard deviations, errors of average values, etc. Such examples can be found when reviewing articles in almost any journal in the field of psychosocial research using ranking scales. Numerous references can be found in work [20] and as fresh examples [6; 7; 19; 23].

The inadmissibility of using classical mathematical operations within a ranking (ordinal) scale has been known for more than 50 years, starting from the foundational works of J. Pfanzagl [25]. This fact is described in foreign and domestic manuals and textbooks on the theory of scales and methods of mathematical data processing (see, for example, [8; 14; 18; 24]).

2. Modern direction

1) Within this direction, researchers, knowing the inadmissibility of processing ranking information by classical mathematical methods, propose using metric measurement systems. Such systems include, in particular, the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP), which includes measurement tools and decision-making algorithms [2; 5; 10-13; 15; 22; 28-30], as well as the Rasch measurement system (RMS) [1; 3; 4; 21; 26; 27]. Note that in our work, the classical version of RMS is discussed, as modern criticism of psychometric instruments, presented in article [17], is associated with this model. The classical version of RMS is also incorrectly used within the Russian Unified State Exam (USE) system (see, for example, [9]), which is one of the reasons for the emergence of criticism of psychometric instruments.

2) In recent years, there have been works discussing critical arguments regarding psychometry. The main message of these arguments is that psychometry cannot be considered a tool for measuring latent characteristics of a person at all (e.g., [17; 31]).

It is argued that the idea of psychometry as a means of obtaining assessments of a person's psychosocial characteristics is based on fuzzy values of basic terms, which are often confused, as well as erroneous assumptions about how measurements can be implemented when studying the psyche.

Research problem

Thus, there is a problem of assessing the correctness and adequacy of the application of psychometric instruments in psychosocial research. In this work, the main focus is on the possibilities and prospects of using AHP in processing ranking information obtained using reliable psychometric instruments. Comparing the capabilities of AHP and RMS methods requires a separate study, but

some remarks on the features of using RMS, as well as on the issue of criticism of psychometric instruments, will be made after outlining the possibilities of applying AHP to solve psychometry problems.

Materials and methods

The work uses materials from Russian and foreign scientific publications, as well as the results of our own research devoted to the use and processing of heterogeneous data presented in different scales, from categorical to ratio scales.

Data analysis methods: statistical, ranking methods, AHP method. All calculations based on the proposed algorithms were performed in the MS Excel environment.

Results and discussion

1. Incorrectness of the numerical approach to processing ranking data in psychometry

The reason for the continuing practice of the numerical approach to processing ranking information lies in the abstract nature of the methods of measurement theory and scales used to prove, for example, the inadmissibility of using such operations as summation and calculating the arithmetic mean in ranking scales. However, at a qualitative level of understanding of ranking information, it is clear that the sum of knowledge of a failing student (2 points) and an average student (3 points) is not equal to the level of knowledge of an excellent student (5 points).

The main reason for such facts in psychosocial research is the unevenness of the labels of ordinal (ranking) scales, for which only ordering operations can be used: equality, greater, lesser, or monotonic transformation without violating the original order (e.g., [14; 18]).

Consider a simple example modeling the situation of an expert council and demonstrating the unacceptable contradictions arising from the "numerical" approach to processing ranking information. Table 1 presents the results of expert evaluation of the condition of two patients, P1 and P2, obtained from 11 specialists of equal qualification who used a 7-point ranking scale (the levels of this scale are from 1 to 7, ordered by increasing severity of the symptom sign).

Table 1
Expert assessments of the condition of patients P1 and P2 on a 7-point scale

<i>Number of experts</i>	P1 (assessments)	<i>Number of experts</i>	P2 (assessments)
8	6	9	5
3	3	2	6

A. Obviously, based on the principle of absolute majority, the assessment of the condition of patient P1 is 6 points, and for patient P2, respectively, 5 points. This principle, which in decision theory allows avoiding paradoxes that exist in various selection systems. An additional argument is the assessments from descriptive statistics: the median and mode, which coincide for P1 (6 points) and for P2 (5 points).

B. If we proceed from the "numerical" approach to the ranked data in Table 1, then for the average

assessments (C1 and C2) of the condition of P1 and P2, we get (with an accuracy of up to 0.01):

$$C1 = (8*6 + 3*3) / 11 = 5,18; C2 = (9*5 + 2*6) / 11 = 5,18.$$

Taking into account the standard error of the mean calculation, we get:

$$C1 = 5,18 \pm 0,42; C2 = 5,18 \pm 0,12$$

The obtained result leads at best to an uncertain situation and, at worst, to an opposite conclusion compared to point A. A logical way out of this situation is to recognize the fact that the ranked data from Table 1 do not allow the calculation of the arithmetic mean.

An additional confirmation of this conclusion is the results of a comprehensive clinical study [3], which revealed that the criteria for assessing the severity of depression on the Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HRSD, Hamilton), developed based on ranked data within the "numerical" approach, do not agree with clinical data.

Commentary on the example.

Incorrect ("numerical") processing of ranked information, as follows from the given example, leads to uncertain situations or errors in assessing the severity of disorders, which obviously negatively affects the effectiveness of relevant psychosocial studies and interventions.

The given simple example is further used to demonstrate correct AHP algorithms in processing ranked information.

2. Processing Psychometric Ranking Data Based on the Analytic Hierarchy Process Method

2.1 Basic Information about the Analytic Hierarchy Process Method

In modern decision theory for multi-criteria, weakly structured problems (it is evident that major psychosocial problems fall into this category), the most natural and effective method for processing heterogeneous information is the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP). The author of the method, who is over 50 years old, is considered to be the American mathematician T. Saaty (T.L. Saaty), but it should be noted that domestic authors (B.N. Brook and V.N. Burkov [5]) proposed a method for processing ranked information (earlier than T.L. Saaty's works), which is essentially the mathematical foundation of the AHP apparatus.

Since 1988 (every 2 years), world symposia on the problems of applications and development of AHP (International Symposium on Analytic Hierarchy Process, ISAHP) have been held; the last (17th) took place in December 2022 (virtual format). The number of theoretical and applied works based on AHP in practically all fields (science, business, industry, healthcare, education, etc.) measures in the thousands (see, for example, reviews of works using AHP [2; 22; 30]).

AHP is a systematic decision-making method based on: 1) a hierarchical representation of the problem (in our case, the hierarchy of the procedure for measuring latent characteristics); 2) the collection of expert information (quantitative and qualitative) gathered within this hierarchy using pairwise comparisons of hierarchy objects; 3) recording the results of pairwise comparisons using the fundamental AHP scale (ratio scale), which is the basic element of the AHP apparatus; 4) obtaining quantitative assessments (in the ratio scale) of latent characteristics using the AHP apparatus.

AHP does not rely on probabilistic approaches, i.e., it is not a statistical procedure. AHP is used both for individual decisions (naturally, the expert must understand the problem at hand and be proficient with the AHP apparatus) and for group (collective) decisions (in practice, such a collective consists of up to 10-20 experts).

Hence, it follows that AHP and the classical variant of the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) (as well as the family of models developed to improve AHP) are completely different models with their

own areas of application. In practice, AHP is usually used to assess up to 10 latent characteristics of one or several subjects.

The advantages of AHP include the presence of a simple mathematical apparatus (linear algebra and matrix analysis), as well as standard computational procedures based on MS Excel.

The main achievements of T.L. Saaty and his colleagues (psychologists, psychophysicists, mathematicians, and statisticians) include, first and foremost, the development and use of the ratio scale (fundamental AHP scale) for measuring expert preferences in pairwise comparison procedures and the assessment of objects of any nature [2; 10; 15; 28; 29].

This numerical scale was derived based on the ratios of the process of nerve excitation, which lead to the well-known psychophysiology law "stimulus-response," and has shown its effectiveness in numerous diverse applications and studies.

The scale is an infinite interval $(0; \infty)$, and the main values of the scale, which are convenient to use in most applications, are numbers from the interval $(0; 9)$. This scale does not include zero, as otherwise objects with zero weight, i.e., insignificant for the considered problem, would be taken into account.

For the convenience and ease of the expert's work in pairwise comparisons of objects, the main numbers of the AHP scale have linguistic descriptions: 1 – equal importance; 3 – slight preference; 5 – significant preference; 7 – strong preference; 9 – absolute preference; 2, 4, 6, 8 – for intermediate cases. The scale also includes corresponding reciprocal values (results of reverse comparisons). At the same time, the team of T.L. Saaty has taken into account the psychophysical characteristics of humans when processing information.

2.2 Main Stages of Information Processing Tasks within AHP

The problem of assessing the condition of patients (within the example) can be represented as a hierarchy (top-down): the 1st level – the final assessment of the condition; the 2nd level – specialists-experts; the 3rd level – assessment criteria (in our example, one criterion is used, but in general, there can be several), measured on appropriate psychometric scales; the 4th level – patients.

To solve the considered example of processing ranked information, the normative AHP approach [2; 10-12; 15] should be used. The approach is based on using expert pairwise comparisons of ranked scale assessments (using the fundamental AHP scale) to form a numerical scale of intensities of the corresponding ranked scale assessments.

Let's consider the matrix (Table 2) of expert assessments of pairwise comparisons of levels of the 7-point scale ("1", ..., "7"), using the main values of the fundamental AHP scale to record the results of pairwise comparisons. Recall that the 7-point ranking scale is used in the considered example (Table 1). The levels of the ranking scale from the minimum ("1") to the maximum ("7") are ordered by the severity of the symptom expression.

Table 2
Matrix of pairwise comparison results of rankings ("1", ..., "7") of the rating scale based on expert consensus (E).

E	«7»	«6»	«5»	«4»	«3»	«2»	«1»
«7»	1	2	3	5	6	7	9
«6»	1/2	1	3	5	6	7	9

«5»	<i>1/3</i>	<i>1/3</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>7</i>
«4»	<i>1/5</i>	<i>1/5</i>	<i>1/2</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>7</i>
«3»	<i>1/6</i>	<i>1/6</i>	<i>1/3</i>	<i>1/3</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>5</i>
«2»	<i>1/7</i>	<i>1/7</i>	<i>1/5</i>	<i>1/5</i>	<i>1/3</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>3</i>
«1»	<i>1/9</i>	<i>1/9</i>	<i>1/7</i>	<i>1/7</i>	<i>1/5</i>	<i>1/3</i>	<i>1</i>

The elements of the matrix in Table 2 are numbers from the fundamental AHP scale, representing the results of pairwise expert comparisons of the levels of the 7-point scale. For example, the main diagonal of such a matrix always contains the value 1 (highlighted in bold italics in the matrix), since the comparison result of any level of the rating scale with the same level has equal importance, expressed as the number 1.

It is convenient to consider the algorithm for filling the matrix using the example of the first row, the elements of which record the degree of preference (by the severity of symptom expression) of level "7" over the following levels ("6", "5", ..., "1"). The result of the preference for rating "7" over rating "6" was assessed by the experts with the number 2, indicating an intermediate value between equal importance (1) and slight preference (3). Next, the result of the preference for rating "7" over rating "5" was assessed by the experts with the number 3, indicating a slight preference. Finally, the result of the last comparison: the preference for rating "7" over rating "1" was assessed by the experts with the number 9, indicating an absolute preference.

The elements of the following rows of the upper triangular part of the matrix (above the main diagonal of the matrix) are filled similarly and will always have values greater than 1, as the compared ranks are ordered by the severity of the symptom. The lower part of the matrix (below the main diagonal) is symmetrically filled with reciprocal values (less than 1) since they correspond to the results of reverse comparisons. Therefore, AHP pairwise comparison matrices are called reciprocal symmetric, where elements symmetric relative to the main diagonal satisfy the relationship:

$$a(i, j) = 1 / a(j, i),$$

where $a(i, j)$ is an element of the pairwise comparison matrix A (Table 2) with indices i and j .

We present the main theoretical AHP relationships for finding the weights of the rating scale assessments [2; 10-12; 15; 28; 29]. Let $w(i)$ denote the numerical normalized weights of the i -th rating assessment, where $I = 1, \dots, 7$ (the normalization of weights means satisfying the condition: $\sum w(i) = 1$).

Then the scale of numerical intensities (Int) of the rating scale assessments is obtained based on the values $w(i)$ by the formula:

$$\text{Int}(i) = w(i) / w(7), (1)$$

If we denote by $W = (w(7), w(6), w(5))^T$ the column vector of normalized weights of the rating scale assessments (T indicates the matrix operation "transposition," which converts a row into a column), then the main AHP equation is:

$$A^*W = \lambda_{\max} * W, (2),$$

where A is the pairwise comparison matrix (Table 2), and λ_{\max} is an important numerical parameter in AHP theory, which, along with the column vector W , needs to be found from the

nonlinear matrix equation (2). The exact solution (i.e., the values of λ_{\max} and \mathbf{W}) of the nonlinear equation (2), considering the normalization of weights $w(i)$, can be obtained using the MS Excel "Solver" add-in, requiring a certain level of proficiency with this tool.

We will present the exact solution of equation (2) below, but now we will outline a simple algorithm based on elementary algebraic operations to find an approximate value (accurate to 0.01) of the elements of the vector \mathbf{W} based on the elements of the matrix \mathbf{A} (see, for example, [11; 12; 15; 28]).

The algorithm consists of 4 stages:

1) Find the row products (p) of the elements of matrix \mathbf{A} (e.g., for the first row \mathbf{A} from Table 2, we get: $p(1) = 11340$, for the second row, $p(2) = 2835$, etc.);

2) Extract the 7th root from each obtained product (the root exponent coincides with the size of the matrix \mathbf{A}). As a result, we get for the first row $q(1) = 3.795$; for the second $q(2) = 3.113$, etc.;

3) Find the sum of the obtained roots. $S = q(1) + q(2) + \dots + q(7)$. We get $S = 10.796$;

4) Find the weights $w(i)$ by the formula: $w(i) = q(i) / S$.

Table 3 shows the approximate values of weights $w(i)$ and corresponding intensities $Int(i)$ for the 7-point scale obtained using this algorithm.

Table 3
Approximate values of weights and corresponding intensities for the levels of the 7-point scale

w	w(7)	w(6)	w(5)	w(4)	w(3)	w(2)	w(1)
Values	0,351	0,288	0,145	0,103	0,060	0,033	0,020
Int	Int(7)	Int(6)	Int(5)	Int(4)	Int(3)	Int(2)	Int(1)
Values	1,000	0,820	0,412	0,293	0,170	0,095	0,054

Table 4 shows the exact values of weights $w(i)$ obtained when solving equation (2) using MS Excel and the corresponding intensities $Int(i)$ for the levels of the 7-point scale.

Table 4
Exact values of weights and corresponding intensities for the levels of the 7-point scale

w(i)	w(7)	w(6)	w(5)	w(4)	w(3)	w(2)	w(1)
Values	0,352	0,290	0,139	0,105	0,060	0,033	0,020
Int(i)	Int(7)	Int(6)	Int(5)	Int(4)	Int(3)	Int(2)	Int(1)
Values	1,000	0,824	0,395	0,298	0,169	0,095	0,056

As can be seen from the results in Tables 3 and 4, the approximate and exact values practically

coincide (the difference in values is no more than 3-4%). This result is explained by the good consistency of the expert information represented by the pairwise comparison matrix A (Table 2).

In AHP, the consistency of expert data presented in matrix A is determined by the parameter λ_{\max} based on the consistency ratio (CR) value using the formula:

$$CR = RICI.$$

In this formula: $CI = (\lambda_{\max} - n) / (n - 1)$ – Consistency Index (n – size of matrix A), and RI – Random Index, which is taken from the corresponding table of random indices; in particular, $RI = 1.35$ for $n = 7$ (see, for example, [2; 15; 29]).

For $CR = 0$ – the matrix A is perfectly consistent. For $0 < CR \leq 0.1$ – it is considered that the matrix is well consistent (i.e., in this case, the CI only slightly matches the random RI – no more than 10%).

For the considered example (Table 2), the value $\lambda_{\max} = 7.50$ and the corresponding value $CR = 0.06$ (indicating good consistency of matrix A).

In practical research, the first step after forming the matrix A is to find the value λ_{\max} (approximate or exact) and assess the corresponding value CR.

If the expert matrix A does not have good consistency, it is necessary to eliminate the causes of inconsistency in expert preferences and achieve good consistency of matrix A. This can be done through various means, by reaching a consensus among the experts or by involving more experienced experts (see, for example, [15]). Additionally, there are AHP modifications that significantly reduce the amount of expert work while obtaining perfectly consistent pairwise comparison matrices, for which the calculation of exact elements of the vector W requires only elementary algebraic operations, as in the above algorithm [12; 13].

We will now provide the solution to the initial example (Table 1), based on the numerical intensity values for the 7-point rating scale assessments (Table 4).

Denoting the arithmetic mean of intensity values for patient P1 as S1, and for P2 as S2, and using the intensity values of the ranking levels from Table 4, we obtain to the accuracy of 0.01:

$$S1 = (8 * Int(6) + 3 * Int(4)) / 11 = 0,68; S2 = (8 * Int(5) + 3 * Int(6)) / 11 = 0,51$$

Considering the standard error of the mean calculation, we get:

$$S1 = 0,68 \pm 0,07; S2 = 0,51 \pm 0,06$$

Thus, the numerical solution to the considered example, as well as the correct ranking solution, provides a consistent clinical result, namely: the condition of patient P1 should be considered more severe.

3. Remarks on the Rasch Measurement System and Criticism of Psychometric Tools

As an alternative to psychometric approaches, which practice a "numerical" view of ranking data and use transformation procedures based on normal distribution, G. Rasch [26; 27] developed a probabilistic metric approach to measuring latent psychosocial properties. The English name for this approach is Rasch Measurement, and in domestic literature (see, for example, [1]), it is referred to as the Rasch Measurement System (RMS).

The classical RMS model was developed for tasks with dichotomous items of uniformly increasing difficulty, allowing for the assessment of the test structure and the measurement of the level of expression of the latent trait in respondents.

RMS can be used in studies of practically any personal trait, provided its statistical stability and clinically significant observability using a system of psychosocial indicators. RMS includes the technology of test development as well as mathematical and software tools for assessing the difficulty

measure of tasks and the level of preparedness of respondents.

3.1. Difficulties in Using RMS

1. The practical implementation of RMS is associated with fairly large samples (hundreds of respondents) and corresponding volumes of statistical information, the processing of which requires specialized mathematical and software tools.

2. Statistical modeling based on RMS uses aggregated data, which represents information about personality characteristics at the population level. However, the results of processing statistical data are difficult to interpret at the individual level, which is essential for psychosocial applications.

Emerging problems in the development and assessment of test characteristics based on RMS (e.g., the well-known Rasch paradox within the classical RMS model – the risk of removing the best items from the test) require the use of iterative expert procedures to solve them.

3.2. On Criticism of RMS

Since part of the criticism of psychometric tools (e.g., in [17]) was directed at RMS, let us first consider an important example of the practical use of the classical RMS as a model for the reasons behind the criticism of psychometric tools.

The developers of the well-known Unified State Exam (USE) system use RMS algorithms (see, for example, [9]) to convert "raw" scores into test scores and appropriately assess the examinees' knowledge. The classical RMS model is used here, in which success in solving test tasks depends only on two variables: the examinee's knowledge level and the task's difficulty, which are to be assessed based on exam results.

However, it is known that the success of any human activity *significantly depends on motivation*. Modern assessments of learning outcomes and corresponding cognitive processes show that motivation affects success several times more than individual abilities (e.g., [16]).

Furthermore, the USE test (e.g., in mathematics, both basic and advanced versions) includes both simple tasks (arithmetic, planimetry) and more complex ones (derivative tasks, the ability to build mathematical models, stereometry). As a result, the following student behavior strategies are observed in practice (for both basic and advanced versions), which can be divided into roughly equal groups: 1) The first group needs mathematics for continuing engineering-technical and mathematical education; hence, they aim to get the maximum number of points; 2) The second group aims to get a diploma and pursue humanitarian education; hence, they have a minimum strategy.

Moreover, USE organizers try to statistically compensate for these violations using exam results nationwide (the concept of statistical modeling). However, it is obviously impossible to consider different regional and socio-economic conditions affecting the uneven preparation of students under the current form of the USE. This also evidently leads to a violation of the applicability of RMS and a flood of critical remarks about the USE results.

The example considered shows that to evaluate a specific psychometric tool, it is necessary to consider the basic concepts of the method that define its applicability and to properly understand the main mathematical and statistical procedures used to present and process data within the method.

In this context, let us present specific, significant errors made in the criticism of RMS in [17].

1) On page 5 of this work, one can read (a direct quote): "The logistic transformation is needed to approximate the score distribution to normal, as the Rasch model assumes that the latent characteristic (trait, property) being studied is normally distributed in the population." This quote shows that its author does not understand the basic principles of RMS and the conditions for their implementation.

Indeed, it should first be noted that the logistic transformation (function) in RMS refers to the functional relationship between the probability of a correct answer to a test item, the examinee's preparation, and the task's difficulty and is not related to any normal distribution of scores in the population. Moreover, G. Rasch in his works [26; 27] opposed the use of the normal Gaussian distribution for data related to human activities, which has received substantial confirmation nowadays (see, for example, [18]).

As for the logistic transformation itself, G. Rasch [26; 27], based on the general properties of the model for estimating the probability of the i-th examinee's response to the j-th test item ($P(i, j)$), proposed a functional relationship in the form of a logistic function:

$$P(i, j) = \exp(b_i - t_j) / (1 + \exp(b_i - t_j)), \quad (3),$$

where b_i is the knowledge level of the i-th examinee, and t_j is the difficulty level of the j-th task. The logistic function (3) has no relation to the normal distribution of scores in the population.

2) Referring again to [17], on page 6, we find an elementary error in using the logarithmic function:

$$\ln(m_1 / m_2) = \ln(m_2 - m_1).$$

That is, the author "invents" a new algebraic formula, assuming that the logarithm of the ratio is equal to the logarithm of the difference (moreover, swapping the arguments in the difference!), instead of the correct formula: the logarithm of the ratio is equal to the difference of the logarithms.

This error could be dismissed as a typo, but three lines later on the same page the error is repeated:

$$\ln(b_1 / b_2) = \ln(b_2 - b_1).$$

Using this formula with $b_1 = b_2$, we can receive $\ln(1) = \ln(0)$, or $0 = -\infty$!

These errors (the conceptual one on page 5 and the elementary algebraic ones on page 6) raise justified doubts about the author's [17] understanding not only of RMS concepts but also of elementary algebraic operations constituting the RMS apparatus, so the criticism of RMS presented in the indicated work should be recognized as untenable.

3.3. On Criticism of AHP

There are critical remarks in the literature concerning the concepts and apparatus of AHP. Such remarks, and sometimes logical and analytical "counterexamples" proving the alleged insolvency of AHP concepts and apparatus, are considered in [10; 15; 29]. These works show that the authors of the critical remarks interpret AHP concepts very superficially (in particular, they do not understand the fundamental difference between the descriptive and normative approaches of AHP and the conditions for their application) and also make elementary errors in using the AHP apparatus. The most common errors not only in articles but also in textbooks on AHP are described in [10].

Conclusions

1. The decisive advantage of the AHP method in the problem of measuring and evaluating latent characteristics is a clear representation of the structure of the multifactorial problem, the elements of the problem, and the interdependencies between them based on the hierarchical model, as well as the numerical expression of expert judgments based on the fundamental AHP scale.

2. The methods of obtaining information from an expert within the AHP framework correspond to psychologically comfortable conditions, meeting the psychophysical capabilities of a person to process information. A very important element of the AHP apparatus is the ability to assess the consistency of expert judgments using consistency indices (CI and RI), which allow for judging the

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quality of expert information. At the same time, data processing based on AHP algorithms does not require specialized mathematical and software tools; only standard MS Excel tools are sufficient.

3. Psychometric tools such as AHP and RMS allow for accurate numerical assessments of a person's latent characteristics. Criticism of these tools is associated with a superficial understanding of the basic concepts of psychometric measurements and their areas of application, as well as with elementary errors in using the psychometric tools' apparatus.

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Daily Stressors Questionnaire for Adolescents

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The article describes the development and testing of psychodiagnostic tools designed to study the perception of everyday stress by adolescents. Everyday stress is a crucial part of life. In today's world, teenagers can be especially vulnerable to stressors in everyday life. Despite the growing number of studies, there is a lack of selected tools to make stressful situations a reality in the daily lives of adolescents. The article presents research materials obtained from a sample of 555 adolescents, 339 girls and 216 boys aged 13 to 17 years. Validation of the component of a preliminary survey of adolescents, compilation of a list of stress in the everyday life of adolescents, factorization of stress and identification of the duration of a stressful situation, interpretation of the data obtained, assessment of the daily stress schedule and convergent validity. As a result, the Questionnaire of Everyday Stressors for Adolescents was developed and validated; areas of everyday stress were identified, including both the sphere of external and internal life: "Loneliness, well-being", "Self-attitude", "Rejection", "Fears, anxiety", "School, study", "Communication with elder", "Affairs, planning", "Finance", "Mystical fears". Sex differences were revealed. The results of the analysis of internal consistency and convergent validity of the Questionnaire factors.

Keywords: everyday stress; adolescents; questionnaire.

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В статье представлены результаты разработки и апробации психодиагностического инструментария, предназначенного для изучения восприятия повседневного стресса подростками. Повседневный стресс выступает неотъемлемой частью жизни в современном мире, а подростки могут быть особенно уязвимы к стрессорам повседневной жизни. Несмотря на растущее число исследований, отсутствует необходимый инструментарий, позволяющий выявить стрессовую напряженность сфер повседневной жизни подростков. В статье представлены материалы исследования, полученные на выборке 555 подростков, 339 девушек и 216 юношей в возрасте от 13 до 17 лет. Валидизация включала предварительный опрос подростков, составление перечня стрессоров повседневной жизни подростков, факторизацию стрессоров и выделение сфер стрессовой напряженности, интерпретацию полученных данных, оценку сфер повседневного стресса и конвергентной валидности. В результате разработан и валидизирован Опросник повседневных стрессоров для подростков, выявлены сферы повседневного стресса, включающие как сферы внешней среды, так и внутренней жизни: «Одиночество, самочувствие», «Самоотношение», «Отвержение», «Страхи, беспокойство», «Школа, учеба», «Общение со старшими», «Дела, планирование», «Финансы», «Мистические страхи». Выявлены половые различия. Результаты проведенного анализа показали внутреннюю согласованность и конвергентную валидность факторов Опросника.

Ключевые слова: повседневный стресс; подростки; опросник.

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Introduction

Modern life is filled with stress-inducing situations. Both isolated negative life events and chronic tension (due to poverty, physical and psychological violence, family conflicts, etc.), as well as excessive fascination with computer technologies, can contribute to the emergence of emotional problems [3; 11; 25; 26; 27; 34; 37]. Among the most common consequences of stress are neurological disorders, mental health issues, cardiovascular and respiratory system problems [35], signs of emotional burnout [33], negative emotional reactions, and a complex of cognitive, communicative, and behavioral disorders [21], as well as depressive symptoms associated with suicidal risk [18; 24; 27; 38; 40; 41].

In recent years, the stress-inducing impact of the environment has increased due to higher demands on adolescents' personalities, more complex educational programs, crisis phenomena in the family sphere, the active introduction of gadgets into modern life, and the expansion of stressors in professional, family, and social spheres, etc. [1; 4; 21].

In scientific literature, the problem of everyday stress and its differences from traumatic stress is actively discussed [20; 30]. Situations of everyday life that cause tension were described by Lazarus and Folkman with the term "daily hassles" [32]. Compared to critical life events, everyday stressors are less intense but can accumulate and have a long-term negative impact on health, depleting physiological and psychological resources [36; 37]. Everyday stressors are individual events in a person's life, and their perception can depend on various factors: age, stress sphere, and coping strategies used [21], complicating the process of their study [13].

In the perception of everyday stressors, their subjective evaluation is important—how threatening the person considers the situation [2; 32]. There is evidence that sensitivity to everyday stressors is related to irrational personal beliefs, a tendency to "catastrophize," and the attribution of global subjective significance to everyday hassles [7]. At the same time, a person's belief in their ability to manage life events (self-efficacy) serves as a resource that reduces the consequences of everyday stress [24; 26].

It has been established that the prolonged influence of everyday stressors manifests in increased psycho-emotional tension and decreased life satisfaction [29]. As predictors that reduce the level of everyday stress, scientists highlight emotional stability, suppression, and reappraisal coping strategies [10; 12]. Studies have shown that personality traits in response to everyday stress are predictors of future chronic diseases [35; 36]. It is also important to note that the consequences of stress are mitigated by the saturation of everyday life with positive emotions and exacerbated by frequent worry [35]. Thus, the question of individual susceptibility to everyday stressors and personality traits that can prevent the consequences of long-term everyday stress is important.

In the study by N.E. Kharlamenkova, D.A. Nikitina, and E.N. Dymova, it is noted that children, upon entering adolescence (8-12 years), are already capable of differentiating their stress assessments, that is, evaluating stressful situations both negatively and positively. Moreover, a child's positive assessment of stress can be an indicator of successful coping with stress, indicating the functioning of psychological defenses [22]. A certain level of stress in an adolescent's life can contribute to the development of adaptive mechanisms, coping strategies, and, as a result, increase resilience to negative impacts [31; 37]. Thus, stress in adolescence can have both negative and positive effects on the formation of an adolescent's personality. Stressful situations provide adolescents with the opportunity to overcome difficulties and develop stress coping strategies. However, excessive stress levels can negatively impact an adolescent, affecting their mental and psychological health,

interpersonal interactions, and academic performance.

As a rule, the literature highlights the main life spheres of adolescents most saturated with stressors: school, family interactions, and peer interactions. It can be assumed that these are far from all the life spheres in which stressors are present. Alongside these external spheres, stress also affects internal life spheres—experiences related to self-acceptance, acceptance by others, fears, and more. The problem of studying everyday stress is complicated by the lack of psychodiagnostic tools adequate for adolescent age. It is necessary to note that the problem of everyday stress has been studied predominantly in adult samples. There are not enough representative studies on adolescent samples. Considering all of the above, the tasks of the work were to create a Daily Stress Questionnaire for adolescents, its testing and validation, as well as an analysis of daily stress tension in adolescents and the life spheres associated with stress.

Methods

To determine convergent validity, methods were used to diagnose variables that should theoretically predictably relate to indicators of everyday life stressors: Perceived Stress Scale (PSS-10, V.A. Ababkov et al., adaptation by N.E. Kharlamenkova) [23], Stress Resistance Test (N.V. Kirsheva, N.V. Ryabchikova) [15], Multidimensional Life Satisfaction Scale by E.S. Huebner (O.A. Sychev et al.) [19], Psychological Well-being Scale by C. Ryff (L.V. Zhukovskaya) [5; 39], Personal Anxiety Scale for Students (A.M. Prikhozhan) [14], Method for Diagnosing Social and Psychological Adaptation (K. Rogers, R. Diamond, adapted by Snegireva) [17], the Hardiness Test by S. Maddi (D.A. Leontiev) [10], and the "School Situation" method (V.K. Zaretsky, A.B. Kholmogorova) [6].

For statistical processing, SPSS-20 software was used, employing factor analysis (exploratory, alpha factorization, confirmatory factor analysis), correlation analysis (Pearson's r), and comparative analysis (student's t-test, Cohen's d).

Results

Method Development Procedure

The total sample size at different stages of the study comprised 555 adolescent boys and girls. The initial pilot sample (2021-2022) included 299 adolescents aged 13 to 17 years (155 girls and 144 boys). To increase the sample size and refine results, an additional study was conducted on a sample of 256 adolescents (72 boys, 184 girls, aged 13-17, average age 15.5 years) in 2023-2024.

The Daily Stressors Questionnaire underwent a pilot test [2] on a sample of 299 adolescents in 2021-2022. Exploratory factor analysis using the principal components method with Varimax rotation identified 9 factors explaining 63.31% of the total variance. Alpha factorization identified similar factors with the same item composition of the Questionnaire, explaining 58.31% of the total variance. Confirmatory factor analysis confirmed the nine-factor structure of the Questionnaire ($\chi^2 = 3515.920$; $df = 2309$; $RMSEA = 0.042$; $Pclose = 1.000$). The suitability coefficient for the final version of the 65-item questionnaire is high: Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.93$. Considering the intensity of experience and the number of stressful situations in each of the 9 stress areas, Cronbach's α ranges from 0.82 to 0.85. Thus, factor analysis conducted to reveal the internal consistency of the questionnaire demonstrated its construct validity and structure.

Nine areas of adolescent stress intensity were identified: "Loneliness, well-being," "Self-attitude," "Rejection," "Fears, anxiety," "Mystical fears" (internal life events of the adolescent), and "Finances,"

"School, studies," "Communication with elders," "Tasks, planning" (external environment events). The methodology includes counting the number of stressful events in each area, as well as the intensity of experiencing stressful events.

Subsequently, a **reassessment of the internal consistency** of the Questionnaire was conducted on a sample of 256 adolescents (2023-2024). Correlations between the number of stressful events and the intensity of experiencing events in all areas were found (90 correlations at $p \leq 0.01$). The strong direct correlations of the intensity of experience in different areas of life suggest that the intensity of response to stressors is characterized by individual consistency and determined by stable individual psychological characteristics. Additionally, the presence of correlations confirms the high integration of the system and the internal consistency of the Questionnaire.

Convergent validity was determined using methods aimed at diagnosing variables that should theoretically predictably relate to everyday life stressors. Correlation relationships with the level of perceived stress, stress resistance, and anxiety were studied.

Examining the relationships between the indicators of the Daily Stress Questionnaire and the Perceived Stress Scale revealed that all parameters of everyday stress (number of stressors and intensity of experience) have direct relationships with overstrain, perceived stress level, and stress resistance (54 correlations at $p \leq 0.01$, 3 correlations at $p \leq 0.05$). These correlations indicate that with an increase in the number of stressors, overstrain, perceived stress level, and resistance intensity also increase. Exceptions are the "Resistance to Stress" indicator and the intensity of experiencing stressful events in the areas of "Mystical Fears," "Finances," and "Rejection," where no correlations were found. The absence of correlations between these indicators may indicate the impossibility of managing stress in these areas.

Negative correlations were found between everyday stress indicators and stress resistance (18 correlations at $p \leq 0.01$, 1 correlation at $p \leq 0.05$), indicating that a decrease in stress resistance is accompanied by an increase in the number of stressors and their intensity of experience. An exception is the number of events in the "Communication with Elders" area.

Positive correlations were identified between the number of stressful events and their intensity with the Personal Anxiety Scale for Students (69 correlations at $p \leq 0.01$, 8 correlations at $p \leq 0.05$). The results suggest that increased anxiety is a predisposing factor for increased sensitivity to stressors. An exception is the absence of correlations between the number of stressors in the "School, Studies" area and interpersonal and magical anxiety.

Thus, the identified correlations indicate the stressful nature of the events filling the Questionnaire factors and confirm its intended purpose.

Comparative Analysis of Adolescents' Perception of Everyday Stress

Examining the results of the questionnaire on samples diagnosed in 2021-2022 and 2023-2024 revealed that in the 2023-2024 sample, the number of stressors and the intensity of experiencing stressful events increased (Table 1).

Table 1

Perception of Everyday Stress by Adolescents

Factor	2021-2022 (N=299)	2023-2024 (N=256)	t		
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	\bar{X}	σ	\bar{X}	σ		p	d
Loneliness, well-being (number of events)	2,11	3,176	5,06	3,064	11,097	0,955	-0,945
Tasks, planning (number of events)	3,76	2,389	4,91	1,959	6,086	0,000	-0,526
Fears, anxiety (number of events)	2,7	2,645	4,58	2,688	8,215	0,418	-0,705
Mystical fears (number of events)	0,53	1,066	1,03	1,171	5,223	0,003	-0,446
Self-attitude (number of events)	1,62	2,422	3,74	2,283	10,522	0,948	-0,900
Finances (number of events)	0,9	1,266	2,01	1,673	8,876	0,000	-0,748
Rejection (number of events)	2,8	3,122	3,64	2,697	3,316	0,000	-0,287
School, studies (number of events)	4,44	3,059	5,85	2,525	5,878	0,000	-0,502
Communication with elders (number of events)	3,04	2,333	3,37	2,589	1,552	0,069	-0,134
Total (number of events)	21,98	11,911	34,22	16,650	10,060	0,000	-0,845
Loneliness, well-being (average strength of anxiety)	2,3	2,614	3,81	2,429	10,695	0,951	-0,598
Tasks, planning (average strength of anxiety)	4,45	2,230	4,71	2,291	10,519	0,293	-0,115
Fears, anxiety (average strength of anxiety)	3,2	1,870	4,16	2,321	14,880	0,000	-0,455
Mystical fears (average strength of anxiety)	1,25	2,248	2,32	2,953	5,881	0,000	-0,407
Self-attitude (average strength of anxiety)	2,2	2,403	3,88	2,623	11,678	0,011	-0,667
Finances (average strength of anxiety)	2,05	1,654	3,25	2,819	12,250	0,000	-0,519
Rejection (average strength of anxiety)	3,11	2,768	3,6	2,746	6,296	0,600	-0,177
School, studies (average strength of anxiety)	5,2	2,540	5,11	2,420	9,844	0,061	0,036
Communication with elders (average strength of anxiety)	4,4	2,212	3,4	2,514	5,924	0,034	0,422
Total (average strength of anxiety)	3,13	1,241	3,8	1,742	15,633	0,000	-0,443

As seen in Table 1, for most stress indicators, Cohen's d coefficient falls within medium and high values, confirming the difference between the samples. Stress parameters are higher in the 2023-2024 sample. Lower values in the 2021-2022 sample may be due to the pandemic situation and remote

learning, leading to a reduction in social contacts. In 2023-2024, in-person schooling resumed fully, social contacts with peers and teachers increased, and there were changes in the socio-political situation related to the Special Military Operation (SMO) and restrictive measures towards Russia, which could have contributed to heightened stress across various life domains and an increase in the overall number of stressors. This is consistent with the findings of Y.V. Bykhovets [1] on the impact of informational threats on youth, as well as the features of stress during the pandemic [34].

Let's consider gender differences in the perception of everyday stress in the samples diagnosed in 2021-2022 (Table 2) and 2023-2024 (Table 3).

Table 2
Perception of Everyday Stress by Girls and Boys (2021-2022)

Indicators	Girls (N=155)		Boys (N=144)		t	p
	\bar{X}	σ	\bar{X}	σ		
Stress resilience	33,709	5,906	31,791	5,884	2,811	0,005
Loneliness, well-being (number of stressors)	3,045	3,344	1,118	2,650	5,515	0,000
Loneliness, well-being (average intensity of experience)	2,06	2,765	0,91	2,306	3,889	0,000
Tasks, planning (average intensity of experience)	3,08	2,616	2,27	1,628	3,171	0,002
Mystical fears (number of stressors)	0,419	0,917	0,659	1,195	-1,958	0,051
Mystical Fears (average intensity of experience)	0,75	1,984	1,30	2,478	-2,101	0,036
Self-attitude (number of stressors)	1,922	2,450	1,312	2,358	2,190	0,029
Self-attitude (average intensity of experience)	1,70	2,677	1,05	2,025	2,337	0,020

Girls showed higher tension in the areas of "Loneliness, well-being" (average number of stressors and average intensity of experience at $p \leq 0.000$), "Self-attitude" (number $p \leq 0.029$, intensity $p \leq 0.020$), and "Tasks, planning" (intensity $p \leq 0.002$). Boys showed higher indicators in the "Mystical fears" area (number $p \leq 0.051$, intensity $p \leq 0.036$). Additionally, boys exhibited higher stress resistance ($p \leq 0.005$). No significant differences were found in other life areas, perceived stress, or the overall level of everyday stress.

Table 3
Perception of Everyday Stress by Girls and Boys (2022-2023)

Indicators	Girls	Boys	t
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	(N=184)		(N=72)			p
	\bar{X}	σ	\bar{X}	σ		
Perceived Stress (SHVS-10)	27,53	7,03	25,16	5,01	-2,610	0,001
Stress resilience	34,45	5,2	32,72	7,15	-2,138	0,009
Number of stressors	35,21	20,8 4	33,84	14,7 4	0,589	0,000
Average intensity of experience	3,97	1,8	3,36	1,48	-2,559	0,027
Loneliness, well-being (number)	5,37	2,77	4,27	3,59	-2,605	0,000
Tasks, planning (number)	5,10	1,73	4,43	2,40	-2,474	0,000
Fears, anxiety (number)	4,50	2,44	4,82	3,25	0,855	0,000
Mystical fears (number)	0,93	1,11	1,28	1,28	2,121	0,004
Mystical fears (intensity)	2,40	3,07	2,10	2,65	-0,738	0,025
Self-attitude (number)	3,68	2,08	3,90	2,75	0,703	0,000
Finances (number)	1,98	1,51	2,10	2,05	0,487	0,000
Rejection (number)	3,35	2,47	4,37	3,08	2,745	0,000
School, studies (number)	5,92	2,30	5,68	3,03	-0,693	0,000
Communication with elders (number)	2,98	2,34	4,34	2,93	3,875	0,000

Girls exhibited higher indicators of perceived stress ($p \leq 0,001$), average intensity of stress experience ($p \leq 0,027$), number of stressors ($p \leq 0,000$), tension in the areas of "Loneliness, well-being" (average number of stressors $p \leq 0,000$), "Tasks, planning" (number $p \leq 0,000$), "Mystical fears" (intensity $p \leq 0,025$), "School, studies" (number $p \leq 0,000$).

Boys showed higher indicators for the number of stressors in the areas of "Mystical fears" ($p \leq 0,004$), "Rejection" ($p \leq 0,000$), "Communication with elders" ($p \leq 0,000$), "Self-attitude" ($p \leq 0,000$), "Finances" ($p \leq 0,000$), "Fears, anxiety" ($p \leq 0,000$). They also had higher stress resistance ($p \leq 0,009$). No significant gender differences were found in other life areas, perceived stress, and overall level of everyday stress.

Thus, in the 2021-2022 sample, girls showed the highest stress intensity in the following life areas: "Loneliness, well-being," "Self-attitude," "Tasks, planning," while boys showed it in "Mystical fears."

In the 2023-2024 sample, the situation is similar: girls showed higher perceived stress, number of stressors, and average intensity of experience, as well as stress intensity in the areas: "Loneliness, well-being," "Tasks, planning," "School, studies," while boys showed it in "Rejection," "Communication with elders," "Fears, anxiety," "Self-attitude," "Finances."

Boys in both groups exhibited higher levels of stress resistance.

External Validity of the Daily Stress Questionnaire

To assess external validity, the Questionnaire indicators were compared with various manifestations of adolescents' psychological characteristics, their adaptability, their evaluation of the school situation, satisfaction with different life areas, and psychological well-being. The analysis of correlations between the Daily Stress Questionnaire and the indicators of the Method for Diagnosing Social and Psychological Adaptation (SPA) revealed 115 negative correlations at $p \leq 0.01$ and 8 at $p \leq 0.05$. The highest number of correlations was observed between the scales of the Daily Stress Questionnaire and the SPA indicators "Adaptation," "Self-acceptance," "Acceptance of others," and the overall assessment of social and psychological adaptation, indicating that a decrease in SPA indicators is accompanied by an increase in stress load.

When examining the correlations between the Questionnaire and the indicators of the "School Situation" method, 51 correlations were found at $p \leq 0.01$ and 27 at $p \leq 0.05$. The parameters of everyday stress were correlated with the indicators "Difficulties in studies" (17 correlations, $p \leq 0.01$; 3 correlations, $p \leq 0.05$), "Parents' attitude towards studies and school" (9 correlations, $p \leq 0.01$; 5 correlations, $p \leq 0.05$), "Friends" (5 correlations, $p \leq 0.01$; 6 correlations, $p \leq 0.05$), "Leisure" (5 correlations, $p \leq 0.01$; 5 correlations, $p \leq 0.05$), "Attitude towards studies and academic subjects" (8 correlations $p \leq 0.01$; 2 correlations, $p \leq 0.05$), "Teachers" (6 correlations $p \leq 0.01$; 1 correlation, $p \leq 0.05$), "Truancy" (1 correlation $p \leq 0.01$; 5 correlations, $p \leq 0.05$). The nature of these correlations indicates that an increase in school difficulties is accompanied by an increase in stress.

The analysis of correlations between daily stress and the indicators of the Multidimensional Life Satisfaction Scale by E.S. Huebner revealed 75 correlations at $p \leq 0.01$ and 16 correlations at $p \leq 0.05$. The highest number of correlations of life satisfaction was found with stresses in the areas "Loneliness, well-being" (12 correlations), "Rejection" (12 correlations), "Self-attitude" (11 correlations), "Fears, anxiety" (10 correlations), "Mystical fears" (11 correlations). Stresses in the areas "Self-attitude," "Fears, anxiety," and "Mystical fears" were not correlated with satisfaction with relationships with teachers but were correlated with overall life satisfaction in such a way that increased stress intensity was accompanied by decreased life satisfaction and its aspects.

The analysis of correlations between stress and resilience indicators revealed 65 correlations at $p \leq 0.01$ and 8 correlations at $p \leq 0.05$. Overall resilience has negative correlations with all stress parameters, indicating that an increase in resilience contributes to a decrease in stress levels. No correlations were observed between the level of control and stress in the areas "Finances," "School, studies," "Tasks, planning." Possibly, these areas are beyond the adolescent's control.

The analysis of correlations between stress intensity and psychological well-being revealed 99 correlations at $p \leq 0.01$ and 18 at $p \leq 0.05$. The highest number of correlations with stress was found in the areas "Loneliness, well-being," "Self-attitude," "Rejection," "Fears, anxiety," "Mystical fears" (14 correlations each). The least number of correlations was found with the "Finances" area (4 out of 14 possible). These correlations indicate the high significance of the areas of an adolescent's inner life for their well-being, primarily positive self-attitude and the feeling of being accepted by others.

Discussion

The conducted study showed that almost all major areas of adolescents' everyday life contain

events and situations that cause them tension. It has been shown that stress can arise not only from external life events but also from internal experiences of adolescents. This partially aligns with the findings of academic stress studies on college students, which identified factors such as family relationships, peer communication, school stress, and self-attitude stress [28]. Our results also align with studies conducted on adults; however, the intrapersonal stressors in adolescents are more diverse and pronounced. For instance, adults showed only one internal sphere saturated with experiences, termed the sphere of personal experiences, which does not occupy a leading position among other spheres [4]. In adolescents, stress is prominent in the areas of self-attitude, rejection, fears, and mystical fears, which were not observed in adults. This widespread presence of stress and its penetration into the internal life of adolescents may be due to this period being a crisis stage in development, as well as the transition to adulthood altering the developmental context and imposing new demands on the individual. Adolescents strive for separation from the family, increasing "separation anxiety" [9], which amplifies stress in relationships with adults, teachers, and parents. Researchers indicate an elevated level of social anxiety, characteristic of the transition to adulthood, as a cause of social maladaptation [8]. According to the current study, stress is more pronounced in adolescents with high internality, who have their own point of view and strive to manage their life events independently. It has been shown that everyday stress is lower in adolescents with a higher level of socio-psychological adaptation.

The validation of the Daily Stressors Questionnaire was conducted using various statistical procedures, demonstrating the internal consistency of the Questionnaire scales. By comparing the Questionnaire indicators with traditionally used and validated Perceived Stress Scales and the Stress Resilience Questionnaire, the focus of the Questionnaire on diagnosing stress tension was confirmed. Unlike existing stress diagnostic methods, the Questionnaire allows for determining not only the level of stress but also the area of greatest stress tension in adolescents, enabling educators, psychologists, and parents to direct efforts towards humanizing and positively transforming the social environment [16]. The external validity of the Questionnaire was confirmed by comparing the indicators of everyday stress with various manifestations of adolescents' individual psychological characteristics, resilience, social adaptation, school difficulties, psychological well-being, and satisfaction with different life areas. The Questionnaire also showed sensitivity to manifestations of everyday stress in response to changes in the external socio-political situation and the introduction of restrictive measures when comparing results from different years (pandemic and post-pandemic periods).

Conclusions

The study conducted using the developed Questionnaire allows for the following conclusions:

1. The Daily Stressors Questionnaire was validated, establishing its internal consistency.
2. Areas of everyday stress in adolescents were identified: "Loneliness, well-being," "Self-attitude," "Rejection," "Fears," "School, studies," "Communication with elders," "Tasks, planning," "Finances," "Mystical fears."
3. The highest stress load was found in significant areas of adolescents' life activities: "School, studies," "Tasks, planning," "Communication with elders," "Fears, anxiety," "Rejection."
4. The relationships between everyday stress and perceived stress level, stress resilience, anxiety, resilience, as well as socio-psychological adaptation, satisfaction with various life aspects, academic difficulties, and the level and structure of psychological well-being were described, confirming the

convergent validity of the proposed instrument.

5. Gender differences in the perception of everyday stressors in adolescence were identified and described.

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Приложение

Опросник повседневных стрессоров для подростков

Инструкция:

1) Отметьте, пожалуйста, те события, которые произошли с Вами в течение последних двух недель. Для этого обведите номер вопроса в поле. Если событие (переживание) отсутствовало, то пропускайте его и переходите к следующему.

2) Далее отметьте у выбранных событий силу (выраженность) его переживания, используя шкалу от 1 до 10, где 1 – минимальная выраженность переживания, 10 – максимальная выраженность, сильно переживали во время этого события.

Опросник

№	Минимальная выраженность переживания	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Чувствовал(-а) себя ненужным(-ой)		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2. Чувствовал(-а) себя одиноко		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3. На меня не обращали внимания		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4. Чувствовал(-а) себя лишним(-ей) в кампании людей		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5. Слышал(-а) за своей спиной смех		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6. Внезапно стал(-а) плохо себя чувствовать		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7. Чувствовал(-а) себя заболевшим(-ей), испытывал(-а) недомогание, физический дискомфорт, боль		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8. Общался(-ась) с незнакомыми, малознакомыми людьми		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9. Я был(-а) смущен(-а), чувствовал(-а) себя неловко		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
10. Думал(-а) о своем будущем		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11. Пришлось долго ждать чего-то (транспорт, окончание учебного дня, очередь и пр.)		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

12. Очень много думал(-а) о своих делах	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
13. Не мог(-ла) справиться с домашним заданием	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
14. Не было времени заняться интересным делом	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
15. Пришлось слушать, как кто-то говорит что-то неинтересное	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
16. Потратил(-а) на учебу больше времени, чем ожидал(-а)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
17. Отвечал(-а) у доски, выступал(-а) перед одноклассниками	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
18. Испытывал(-а) волнение, когда учитель смотрел по журналу, кого бы спросить	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
19. Проиграл(-а) в споре	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
20. На уроке учитель неожиданно задал мне вопрос	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
21. Окружающие замолчали, когда я подошел(-ла)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
22. Требовалось обратиться с вопросом, просьбой к незнакомому человеку	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
23. Был(-а) осмеян(-а), надо мной подшучивали окружающие	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
24. Получил(-а) плохие новости	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
25. Были тяжелые дни	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
26. Казалось, что нечто необъяснимое могло помешать добиться желаемого	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
27. Оказался(-ась) в темноте, видел(-а) неясные силуэты, слышал(-а) непонятные шорохи	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
28. Слышал(-а) предсказания о катастрофах	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
29. Хотел(-а) быть лучше кого-то	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
30. После контрольной учитель вслух зачитывал отметки	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
31. Думал(-а) о своей привлекательности для других людей	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
32. Сравнивал(-а) себя с другими	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
33. Был(-а) недоволен(-на) своей внешностью	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
34. Не смог(-ла) ответить у доски	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
35. Не смог(-ла) выступить так хорошо, как хотелось бы	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
36. Потратил(-а) больше денег, чем планировал(-а)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
37. Пришлось брать деньги в долг	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

38. Не хватило денег на покупку чего-либо; не смог (-ла) купить то, что хотел(-а)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
39. Ел(-а) невкусную, пресную, сухую пищу	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
40. Пришлось сильно экономить	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
41. Меня критиковали, в чем-то обвиняли	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
42. Пришлось находиться рядом с неприятным человеком	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
43. Меня обзываали	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
44. Осуждали мой внешний вид	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
45. Общался(-ась) с людьми, которые мне не интересны	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
46. Чувствовал(-а) осуждение со стороны одноклассников, друзей	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
47. Меня перебивали, не слушали	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
48. Было неприятное знакомство, неприятная встреча	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
49. Писал(-а) контрольную работу	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
50. Думал(-а) об экзаменах, контрольной работе, важном задании	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
51. Учитель делал мне замечание, ругал меня	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
52. Не понимал(-а) объяснений учителя	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
53. Получил(-а) не ту оценку, которую ожидал(-а)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
54. Оценивалась моя работа	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
55. Чувствовал(-а) сильную усталость после занятий, работы	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
56. Не хватило времени на отдых, сон	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
57. Оценивали мои способности	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
58. Разговаривал(-а) с классным руководителем, директором, учителем	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
59. Был серьезный разговор со взрослыми	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
60. Меня ругал кто-то из взрослых	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
61. Родители не отпустили гулять	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
62. Были конфликты, скандалы с родными	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
63. Был получен запрет на использование гаджетов, компьютера	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
64. Меня ругали за оценки в школе	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
65. Не соглашался(-лась) с родителями	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

66. Если Вы встретились с другими неприятными событиями, которых нет в списке, укажите их	
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Ключ к Опроснику повседневных стрессоров для подростков

Подсчитываются 2 показателя по каждой из сфер повседневного стресса подростков: «Количество событий» и «Сила переживания».

1) Количество стрессовых событий – специалистом подсчитывается количество событий в каждой из сфер повседневного стресса, отмеченных подростком в бланке.

2) Сила переживания стрессового события – далее среди отмеченных в бланке событий оценивается выраженность переживания события согласно шкале от 1 до 10.

Сфера повседневного стресса	События		Баллы (количество событий)		Баллы (сила переживания)	
	Номера	Количество	Мин.	Макс.	Мин.	Макс.
1. Одиночество, самочувствие	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9	9	0	9	0	90
2. Дела, планирование	10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16	7	0	7	0	70
3. Страхи, беспокойство	17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25	9	0	9	0	90
4. Мистические страхи	26, 27, 28	3	0	3	0	30
5. Самоотношение	29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35	7	0	7	0	70
6. Финансы	36, 37, 38, 39, 40	5	0	5	0	50
7. Отвержение	41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48	8	0	8	0	80
8. Школа, учеба	49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57	9	0	9	0	90
9. Общение со старшими	58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65	8	0	8	0	80

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Student Academic Competence Questionnaire

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The results of the development and standardization of an academic competence questionnaire are presented. The method is based on the understanding of academic competence as a complex of independently developed personal qualities, abilities and skills that ensure the success of educational activities in conditions of its variability during higher education. The theoretical model includes 6 structural and content components (academic motivation, self-organization of educational activities, emotional self-regulation, skills and abilities to work with information, proficiency in oral and written language, communication skills), presented at 3 levels of generality and freedom of transformation (reproductive, reflective, functional). Based on the results of Study 1 ($N=199$), the preliminary version of the questionnaire was reduced from 144 to 69 items. Comparing the results of successful and unsuccessful students confirmed predictive validity. External criterion validity using the contrast group method is based on comparison of groups of undergraduate and graduate students, correlations with self-organization and academic motivation questionnaires (AMS). Study 2 ($N=355$) demonstrated a relatively acceptable fit of the data to the theoretical model based on confirmatory factor analysis, consistency with educational experience questionnaire scales. The internal consistency of the scales was confirmed by Cronbach's alpha indicators based on data from studies 1 and 2. Descriptive statistics for Study 2 are provided. Standardization is proposed based on percentile values, because the distributions of values for most scales differ significantly from normal.

Keywords: academic competence; university students: educational activity; motivation; self-organization; personal resources; academic success; questionnaire; validation.

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Опросник академической компетентности студентов

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Представлены результаты разработки и стандартизации опросника академической компетентности. Методика основана на понимании академической компетентности как комплекса самостоятельно развиваемых личностных качеств, способностей и умений, обеспечивающих успешность учебной деятельности в условиях ее изменчивости при получении высшего образования. Теоретическая модель включает 6 структурно-содержательных компонент (академическая мотивация, самоорганизация учебной деятельности, эмоциональная саморегуляция, умения и навыки работы с информацией, владение устной и письменной речью, коммуникативные умения и навыки), представленных на 3 уровнях обобщенности и свободы преобразования (репродуктивном, рефлексивном, функциональном). По результатам исследования 1 ($N=224$, женщин 93,8%) предварительная версия опросника была сокращена со 144 до 69 пунктов. Подтверждена прогностическая валидность при сравнении показателей успешных и неуспешных студентов на части выборки методом контрастных групп – через сравнение результатов студентов бакалавриата и магистратуры на основе корреляций с опросниками самоорганизации и академической мотивации (ШАМ). Исследование 2 ($N=355$, возраст $M=19,9$; $S=3,01$, женщин 90,1%) показало относительно приемлемое соответствие данных теоретической модели на основе конfirmаторного факторного анализа и согласованность со шкалами опросника образовательного опыта (ООС). Внутренняя согласованность шкал подтверждена показателями альфа Кронбаха по данным 1 и 2 исследований. Приведены описательные статистики по исследованию 2. В силу значимого отличия большей части шкал от нормального распределения предложено при стандартизации опираться на значения процентилей.

Ключевые слова: академическая компетентность; студенты вуза; учебная деятельность; мотивация; самоорганизация; личностные ресурсы; академическая успешность; опросник; валидизация.

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Introduction

Despite the development of approaches to the formation of universal learning activities in high school [16], university students are variably capable of independently regulating and conducting their learning activities [15]. Various practices to address this problem are emerging in universities. These may include adaptation training sessions incorporated into the curriculum or organized by the university's psychological services, reliance on the work of curators [4; 20], and others. The effectiveness of these practices can be evaluated using methods aimed at measuring indicators of subjective well-being [2], motivation, academic adaptation [1], student performance, and so on. Such diagnostic procedures do not always provide information about the strengths and weaknesses of a specific student in relation to their learning activities, which is significant for aiding in the reflection and construction of an individual development plan.

At the Faculty of Psychology and Social Work of VGSPU, with the goal of forming instrumental competence in students for conducting learning activities during higher education, the subject "Practicum of Academic Competence" was included in 2011 in the bachelor's degree programs in "Psychological and Pedagogical Education" and "Psychology" [8]. The content and forms of organizing the academic work within the practicum were developed based on the ideas of the theory of developmental learning, the methodology of cultural-historical psychology, and the activity approach, which is reflected in the developed course guide [9]. Based on these developments, a similar course was implemented at Yanka Kupala State University of Grodno (Belarus) [11]. The practicum involves various diagnostic tools in the mode of reflexive self-diagnosis. Based on the success of this experience and the need for a systematic assessment of the developmental effects of the practicum, the goal was set to develop a questionnaire of academic competence.

Previously, academic competence (AC) was defined as a complex of independently developed personal qualities, abilities, and skills ensuring the success of learning activities in their variability during higher education [10], which can be understood as a system of specific resources of learning activities significant for the development of personal potential, based on the works of D.A. Leontiev [6].

From a content perspective, the structure of AC was defined based on the conceptualization of the practicum implementation experience; however, its content similarity to the model proposed by S. Elliott and D.K. DiPerna for schoolchildren and used in contemporary research [19], and its consistency with studies on predictors of student learning success [14; 18], can be noted. We also consider the possible formation of AC at different levels in terms of generalization and freedom of its transformation in changing conditions, based on the concept of functional development as a process where "three stages (or levels) of the formation of cultural action methods can be identified" [13, p. 31]. Thus, at the formal or reproductive level, AC manifests in spontaneously formed typical behavior patterns and learning activity methods that ensure its effectiveness. The reflexive level ensures the awareness of choosing a method of activity, guided by the requirements of the situation and one's own capabilities. The functional level corresponds to the ability to transform one's learning activity methods based on reflexive analysis of the current situation, using various cultural tools.

The structural-content model of AC includes the following components: (1) *academic motivation* – as a characteristic of overall motivation for learning and the ability to recognize and enhance it; (2) *self-organization of learning activities* ensures the success of planning and implementing all types of academic work; (3) *emotional self-regulation* supports the stability and positivity of emotional states in learning; (4) *skills and abilities to work with information* are considered in the context of its search

and quality assessment, as well as its transformation and understanding; (5) *proficiency in oral and written language* ensures the success of academic writing and oral presentations; (6) *communication skills and abilities* are important for successful communication in the educational process. Thus, the generalized model of AC includes 6 specified components, which can manifest differently at reproductive, reflexive, and functional levels.

Methods and organization of the study

In developing the AC questionnaire according to the theoretical model, 6 substantive scales were included, each with 3 subscales corresponding to the levels of its formation, totaling 18 subscales. For each, 8 items were formulated, resulting in a preliminary version of 144 statements for dichotomous evaluation. The statements were discussed with a group of 4 experts – master's students of the "Cultural-Historical Psychology and Activity Approach in Education" program (one of whose research was related to studying academic competence [12], while the others were then university psychology lecturers with over 15 years of experience). All statements were deemed consistent with the theoretical model of academic competence.

Data collection for the **empirical study 1** was conducted from 2020 to 2022, with the pilot version of the developed questionnaire included in the program alongside the following methodologies to assess its validity:

Questionnaire "Academic Motivation Scales" (AMS) (T.O. Gordeeva, O.A. Sychev, E.N. Osin), based on theoretical representations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in self-determination theory [3]. The questionnaire includes 7 scales diagnosing three types of intrinsic motivation (cognitive, achievement, self-development motivation), three types of extrinsic motivation for educational activities (self-esteem motivation, introjected, external) and amotivation.

Questionnaire "Diagnosis of Self-Organization Features" (DSOF) (A.D. Ishkov), which includes an integral scale "Level of Self-Organization" and six specific scales characterizing the development of the personal component of self-organization (willpower) and five functional components: goal-setting, situational analysis, planning, self-control, correction [5].

The study involved 199 undergraduate students studying at the Federal State Budgetary Educational Institution of Higher Education "VGSPU" in the fields of "Psychological and Pedagogical Education" (N=139) and "Psychology" (N=60) from 1st to 4th year of various forms of study (93.5% women). To form a comparison group with undergraduate students, only the AC questionnaire was proposed to master's students of the program "Personal Potential Development: Personalization and Digitalization" GAOU VO MGPU (N=25).

With the participation of deans' staff in the 2022-2023 academic year, a generalized expert assessment was given to part of the sample (N=97), identifying groups of successful and unsuccessful students. Unsuccessful students were those who regularly had academic debts, while successful students had consistently relatively high academic performance with no subject debts. Cases of unstable success were excluded from these groups, along with students for whom assessment was not performed for organizational reasons.

As a result of the first empirical study, the questionnaire was reduced to 69 items. Statements were excluded based on the analysis of the relationships of individual items with the success indicator, the consistency of the designed scales by Cronbach's alpha, and the "difficulty" of the items. It was also decided to abandon the detailed structure of 18 primary subscales and retain 6 scales as diagnostic indicators corresponding to the substantive model, and 3 – to the level model of academic

competence.

Taking into account the feedback from participants who found it difficult to assess agreement with statements on a dichotomous scale, and to increase differentiation while reducing the number of items, it was decided to use a Likert scale with 4 levels of agreement and translate it into scores from 0 to 3.

Empirical study 2 was conducted in the spring of 2023 using a version of the questionnaire, including 69 items obtained after the screening in the previous stage. The study included the *Student Educational Experience Questionnaire* (SEEQ) (N.A. Lyz, E.V. Golubeva, O.N. Istratova), diagnosing indicators across 5 scales: satisfaction, intention to expand experience, self-efficacy and support, experience of self-regulated learning, engagement [7].

The survey involved 355 undergraduate and specialist students from VGSPU (N=283) and YKSUG named after Y. Kupala (N=72) aged 17 to 47 years (M=19.9; S=3.01), with first-year students making up 40.6%. Most of the sample consisted of students in teacher education profiles (N=200), also represented were: psychological and pedagogical education (N=98), special and defectological education (N=25), psychology (N=24), and other humanities profiles (N=8). The specifics of the university determined the predominance of women in the sample (90.1%). 91.3% of respondents are studying full-time.

Surveys in both studies were conducted using the Google Forms service, and participation was incentivized by incorporating the survey into work for psychological and pedagogical disciplines. At the same time, the preamble to the survey emphasized that participation was being considered, not the content of the responses. Attention was also drawn to the reflective nature of the survey and the opportunity to think about the education being received. According to the data from the groups where the author directly engaged students to participate, some of the least successful and engaged students ignored the invitation to complete the survey.

Statistical data analysis was performed using Jamovi 2.3 (CFA) and IBM SPSS Statistics 20.0 (other methods of analysis).

Results

To assess the conformity of the data obtained in study 2 with the structural-content and level models underlying the questionnaire, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used. Calculations were performed twice, separately for each model. For the structural-content model, which assumes the identification of 6 substantive components within the AC, the fit indices were: CFI=0.620, TLI=0.606, RMSEA=0.0681. For the level model: CFI=0.613, TLI=0.601, RMSEA=0.0676. Despite the relatively low CFI and TLI values, the acceptable RMSEA values [17] allow both models to be considered at least not contradictory to the empirical data. Analysis of possible acceptable substantive adjustments to the models (excluding certain statements and changing the level to which the item was assigned) did not lead to a noticeable improvement in their quality, so it was decided to retain the a priori correspondence of items to the questionnaire scales. Factor loadings along with the content of the statements and processing keys are provided in the appendix.

Scale reliability based on consistency was evaluated by Cronbach's α . Values from the two studies are shown in Table 1. The distribution of raw scores for most individual subscales significantly deviates from normal according to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov criterion. However, the final score gives an acceptable fit to the normal distribution.

Table 1

Characteristics of the scales, indicators of consistency according to data from Study 1 (N=224) and Study 2 (N=355), significance of the deviation of the distribution from normal according to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test based on data from Study 2

Scale	Index	α – Study 1 ¹	Number of items				α – Study 2 ¹	p -level ²
			Ac	Rf	Fc	Total		
Academic Motivation	1-AM	0,656	5	3	3	11	,811	,003
Self-organization of Study Activities	2-SO	0,739	5	5	2	12	,834	,068
Emotional Self-regulation	3-ES	0,718	5	4	2	11	,774	,104
Communication Skills and Abilities	4-K	0,616	5	4	2	11	,611	,001
Speech Skills and Abilities	5-R	0,699	5	4	3	12	,762	,020
Information Handling Skills	6-I	0,687	3	5	4	12	,835	,005
AC of Reproductive Level	Rp	0,836	28			28	,869	,172
AC of Reflexive Level	Rf	0,774		25		25	,882	,065
AC of Functional Level	Fc	0,743			16	16	,861	,042
Overall AC Indicator	AC	0,910	28	25	16	69	,946	,273

Notes: ¹ Values of Cronbach's α coefficient for Studies 1 and 2 respectively; ² Level of significance of the difference between the distribution and the normal distribution.

As with most scales of other self-assessment questionnaires included in the study (AMS and SEEQ), the distributions have a right-sided asymmetry with a shift towards high values (Table 2), which may be due to the insufficient coverage of the least engaged students. Therefore, standardization using sten or stena scales seems not quite adequate, but for rough estimation, it is possible to highlight average levels within the $M \pm S$ interval. More justified, given the obtained data, seems to be standardization based on percentile values, which are presented in Table 2 along with the distribution parameters.

Table 2
Parameters of the distributions of values on the scales of the AC questionnaire according to study 2 (N=355)

Scale ¹	Main parameters ²				Percentiles								
	M	S	As	Ex	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90
1-AM	24,94	5,297	-0,746	1,002	18	21	22	24	26	27	28	30	31
2-SO	27,06	5,852	-0,618	0,45	19,6	22	24	26	27	29	31	32	34,4
3-ES	21,18	5,489	-0,212	0,046	14	17	18	20	21	22	24	26	28
4-K	24,18	4,176	-0,719	1,312	19	21	23	24	25	26	26,2	27	29
5-R	27,96	4,582	-0,579	0,881	22	24	26	27	28	29	31	32	34
6-I	29,14	5,168	-0,751	0,803	23	25	27	28	29	31	33	34	36
Rp	58,21	11,277	-0,454	0,679	44	48,2	52,8	55	59	62	65	69	72
Rf	59,5	9,462	-0,76	1,49	47	51	54	58	60	63	66	69	72
Fc	36,75	7,349	-0,58	0,579	27	31	32	35	37	40	42	44	46,4
AC	154,46	25,651	-0,703	1,486	122,6	132	141,8	149,4	156	163	171,2	178,8	184,4

Notes: ¹ Decryption of the scale indexes is provided in Table 1; ² M – arithmetic mean, S – standard

deviation, As – skewness coefficient, Ex – kurtosis coefficient.

Table 3 presents the intercorrelations between the scales of the questionnaire. High and significant correlations between all scales indicate that the questionnaire as a whole diagnosis a fairly integral construct.

Table 3
Intercorrelations (Spearman's coefficients) between the scales of the AC questionnaire based on data from Study 2 (N=355)

Scale ¹	2-SO	3-ES	4-K	5-R	6-I	Rp	Rf	Fc	AC
1-AM	,767**	,494**	,489**	,677**	,720**	,708**	,777**	,814**	,839**
2-SO		,579**	,506**	,715**	,745**	,781**	,799**	,812**	,880**
3-ES			,537**	,669**	,500**	,798**	,620**	,616**	,764**
4-K				,646**	,611**	,696**	,640**	,626**	,727**
5-R					,737**	,807**	,802**	,778**	,880**
6-I						,681**	,853**	,843**	,861**
Rp							,669**	,721**	,900**
Rf								,807**	,898**
Fc									,911**

Notes: ¹ Decryption of the scale indexes is provided in Table 1; ** correlation is significant at p≤0.01 level.

To assess validity—both predictive and through the method of contrasting groups—comparisons were made (1) between undergraduate students with high and low academic performance based on expert assessments and (2) between a sample of undergraduate and master's students in the "Personal Potential Development" program using the Mann-Whitney U test. Predictably, the higher level of academic competence among master's students is due to their successful experience in undergraduate or specialist programs. The majority work in the education system and, at the time of the study, were handling academic tasks while managing high workloads, as well as engaging with the program's content focused on personal resource development.

The results obtained (Table 4) confirm that for most scales of the AC questionnaire, more successful undergraduate students compared to less successful ones, and master's students compared to undergraduates, show higher values at significant levels of difference.

Table 4
Comparison of contrasting groups by scales of the AC questionnaire based on data from Study 1

AC Questionnaire Scale ¹	1. Comparison by academic performance				<i>p</i> -level ²	2. Comparison by level of education				
	low (n=34)		high (N=63)			bachelor's program (N=199)	master's program RLP (N=26)		<i>p</i> -level ²	
	M	S	M	S			M	S		
1-AM	8,26	2,22	9,46	1,38	,010	8,89	1,99	9,50	1,66	,093

2-SO	7,09	2,89	9,79	1,70	,000	8,55	2,63	9,62	2,47	,028
3-ES	6,76	2,79	7,48	2,30	,322	6,78	2,55	8,15	2,26	,006
4-K	8,03	2,17	9,17	1,50	,011	8,51	2,00	9,46	1,56	,017
5-R	9,09	2,57	9,90	1,90	,184	9,44	2,25	10,69	1,72	,002
6-I	9,59	2,23	10,73	1,26	,018	10,11	2,04	11,27	1,28	,001
Rp	17,62	5,92	21,49	4,23	,002	19,54	5,09	22,42	4,84	,002
Rf	20,03	3,77	21,78	2,29	,036	20,53	3,64	22,35	2,68	,005
Fc	11,18	3,07	13,27	1,99	,001	12,20	2,96	13,92	2,08	,002
AC	48,82	11,09	56,54	6,89	,001	52,27	10,35	58,69	8,46	,001

Notes: ¹ Decryption of the scale indexes is provided in Table 1; ² Significance level for differences tested by the Mann-Whitney U test.

Validity against external criteria was also checked through relationships with questionnaires on self-organization, academic motivation, and students' educational experiences (Table 5). Overall, the data obtained do not contradict theoretical expectations.

Table 5
Correlations (Spearman's coefficients) of the AC¹ questionnaire scales with scales of the self-organization, academic motivation, and students' educational experience questionnaires

Scale	1-AM	2-SO	3-ES	4-K	5-R	6-I	Rp	Rf	Fc	AC
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Self-organization Questionnaire, Study 1 (N=199)										
Goal setting	,246**	,437**	,461**	,497**	,468**	,427**	,568**	,415**	,474**	,572**
Situation analysis	,342**	,424**	,316**	,343**	,416**	,448**	,429**	,445**	,457**	,507**
Planning	,358**	,535**	,422**	,369**	,428**	,454**	,521**	,479**	,501**	,582**
Self-control	,336**	,445**	,413**	,412**	,455**	,461**	,495**	,472**	,494**	,561**
Correction	-,003	,186**	,498**	,426**	,379**	,211**	,506**	,171*	,237**	,387**
Volitional efforts	,248**	,431**	,493**	,506**	,498**	,419**	,602**	,404**	,472**	,585**
Self-organization	,303**	,478**	,498**	,485**	,508**	,467**	,597**	,466**	,511**	,618**
Academic Motivation Scales, Study 1 (N=199)										
Cognitive motivation	,307**	,290**	,321**	,305**	,312**	,348**	,433**	,246**	,383**	,421**
Achievement motivation	,234**	,318**	,398**	,293**	,414**	,376**	,484**	,281**	,403**	,464**
Self-development motivation	,306**	,358**	,320**	,242**	,270**	,313**	,398**	,273**	,385**	,409**
Self-esteem motivation	,285**	,129	-,071	-,017	-,029	,112	-,026	,089	,201**	,073
Introjected motivation	,108	,008	-,165*	-,087	-,076	-,048	-,108	-,023	,013	-,064
External motivation	-,085	-,114	-,234**	-,178*	-,248**	-,169*	-,262**	-,139	-,180*	-,235**
Amotivation	-,264**	-,165*	-,269**	-,301**	-,241**	-,329**	-,358**	-,207**	-,292**	-,339**
Student Educational Experience Questionnaire, Study 2 (N=355)										
Satisfaction	,680**	,604**	,497**	,416**	,559**	,583**	,626**	,566**	,654**	,680**

Scale	1-AM	2-SO	3-ES	4-K	5-R	6-I	Rp	Rf	Fc	AC
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Intention to expand experience	,543**	,492**	,308**	,308**	,449**	,479**	,440**	,458**	,538**	,522**
Self-efficacy and support	,453**	,484**	,554**	,556**	,513**	,433**	,638**	,454**	,516**	,600**
Experience of self-regulated learning	,616**	,662**	,507**	,422**	,577**	,560**	,593**	,643**	,615**	,683**
Engagement	,577**	,560**	,499**	,430**	,527**	,499**	,668**	,487**	,512**	,625**

Notes: ¹ Decryption of the scale indexes used in the column headings is provided in Table 1; * correlation is significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level; ** correlation is significant at $p \leq 0.01$ level.

Discussion and Conclusions

The validity of the proposed questionnaire was ensured through the development of the model, the involvement of specialists with extensive teaching and current student experience in the development and formulation of items, and their expert review. Empirical data confirming such types of validity as predictive and construct, based on the method of contrasting groups, and correlations consistent with theoretical expectations with data from previously standardized questionnaires on self-organization, academic motivation, and student experience, also supported validity. Reliability is confirmed by good indicators of internal consistency of the scales, as well as the acceptable consistency of the obtained data with the theoretical models underlying the development of the questionnaire.

High consistency of the questionnaire scales, although indicating that AC can be considered as an integral construct, somewhat reduces the value of the indicators obtained from individual scales. This can be considered a limitation when using the questionnaire solely for research purposes due to the relatively large number of items. However, when used within the framework of providing assistance to students in developing their AC, the volume of the questionnaire should not be an obstacle, as referring to different situations in which personal qualities and abilities manifest, resourceful for academic success, can already be useful.

The limitations of the proposed tool also include the insufficient representativeness of the sample in terms of coverage of different universities and fields of study, as well as gender. However, addressing the assessment and development of academic competence is especially important for students in psychology and education fields, as their own experience in improving the effectiveness of academic activities can be considered a contribution to the development of not only personal but also professional resources that support their future ability to help students solve similar problems.

Further directions for improving the proposed questionnaire include refining norms for students from other universities and fields of study, developing an express version of the questionnaire, and clarifying divergent validity by comparing with specific criteria for different scales. The question of comparing the capabilities of psychological diagnostics based on a self-report questionnaire and test procedures involving solving case tasks modeling problematic situations in learning remains open. An important direction for further research, we see, is the systematic identification and description using qualitative methods of the features of the manifestation of academic competence at the reproductive, reflexive, and functional levels in real academic activities, followed by comparison with the results of diagnostics using the questionnaire.

In the near future, the questionnaire may also need to be refined in connection with the changing specifics of higher education: the introduction of new forms of assessment (demonstration exam, etc.), the expansion of digital educational resources, including the use of tools based on artificial intelligence technologies, etc.

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Приложение

Опросник академической компетентности

Инструкция. Ниже приведены утверждения, которые касаются личных качеств и умений, помогающих учиться в вузе. Отвечая на них, Вы сможете задуматься о том, что именно помогает или мешает Вам успешно справляться с учебой. Оцените степень своего согласия с каждым утверждением.

Шкала для оценивания утверждений: да, скорее да, скорее нет, нет.

№	Утверждение	K ¹	Ш1 ²	ФН1 ³	Ш2 ⁴	ФН ²
1	Большинство учебных предметов вызывает у меня искренний интерес	п	1-АМ	.606	Рп	.567
2	Обычно я успеваю своевременно и в полном объеме выполнять все, что мне нужно по учебе	п	2-СО	.505	Рп	.503
3	Волнение часто мешает мне успешно выступать на учебных занятиях	о	3-ЭС	.322	Рп	.246
4	Иногда мне бывает сложно обсудить какие-то учебные проблемы с однокурсниками	о	4-К	.199	Рп	.189

5	Я умею выражать свои мысли достаточно точно и содержательно	п	5-Р	.589	Рп	.571
6	Я могу понять, с чем связано изменение моего интереса к изучению какого-либо предмета	п	1-АМ	.354	Рф	.444
7	Я понимаю, какие у меня могут быть сложности при выполнении того или иного учебного задания	п	2-СО	.446	Рф	.502
8	Я замечаю, какие учебные ситуации вызывают у меня волнение, а в каких я остаюсь спокойным (спокойной)	п	3-ЭС	.369	Рф	.451
9	Я стал(а) организованнее, потому что этого требует учеба в вузе	п	2-СО	.520	Фк	.488
10	Изучение учебных предметов в вузе является частью моего саморазвития	п	1-АМ	.639	Рп	.564
11	Я стараюсь не оставлять выполнение учебных заданий на последний момент	п	2-СО	.566	Рп	.564
12	Я часто сомневаюсь в правильности выполнения заданий для самостоятельной работы и это мешает мне сосредоточиться на работе с ними	о	3-ЭС	.276	Рп	.217
13	В моей учебной группе есть хорошо работающие способы коммуникации (например, общегрупповой чат, группа в социальной сети и т.п.), которые позволяют мне не пропустить ничего важного	п	4-К	.364	Рп	.311
14	Я способен дать связный, развернутый устный ответ по объемной теме	п	5-Р	.612	Рп	.624
15	При выполнении учебных заданий я ориентируюсь на рекомендованные преподавателем источники информации и учебно-методические материалы	п	6-И	.457	Рп	.416
16	Обычно я могу понять, какие условия мне нужны, чтобы успешно выполнить то или иное задание, ориентируясь на его объем, содержание работы, форму представления отчета и т.п.	п	2-СО	.608	Рф	.600
17	Я замечаю, что за время обучения в вузе мои навыки работы с информацией изменяются	п	6-И	.494	Рф	.505
18	Благодаря обучению в вузе я стал(а) лучше понимать других людей и более эффективно выстраивать свое взаимодействие с ними	п	4-К	.569	Фк	.553
19	Ответы на семинарах и активное участие в дискуссиях на занятиях – это хорошая практика, которая помогает мне развивать навыки устной речи	п	5-Р	.601	Фк	.564
20	Достижение успехов в учебе имеет для меня важное значение	п	1-АМ	.678	Рп	.622
21	Участие в выполнении самостоятельного группового задания, которое нужно сделать вместе с кем-то из однокурсников, обычно вызывает у меня много трудностей	о	4-К	.081	Рп	.013
22	Я знаю, какие мои действия помогают чувствовать себя спокойно и уверенно во время учебных занятий	п	3-ЭС	.629	Рф	.562

23	После напряженного разговора, касающегося моей учебы, я стараюсь понять, что можно было сказать или сделать иначе для лучшего результата	п	4-К	.277	Рф	.301
24	Я понимаю, каких именно умений мне не хватает для написания объемных текстов – например, курсовой работы, отчета по практике и т.п.	п	5-Р	.367	Рф	.388
25	Я задумываюсь о необходимости соблюдения норм цитирования при использовании идей других авторов	п	6-И	.509	Рф	.490
26	Перед началом нового учебного семестра я обычно ставлю себе цели в обучении и стараюсь продумать план их достижения	п	1-АМ	.595	Фк	.556
27	Если я сомневаюсь в правильном написании какого-либо слова или предложения, то стараюсь разобраться с этим на основе словарей и справочников, в том числе доступных онлайн	п	5-Р	.306	Фк	.318
28	При столкновении со сложным для меня текстом я стараюсь найти и попробовать новый способ его понимания	п	6-И	.559	Фк	.560
29	Все, что связано с моим обучением, имеет для меня личную значимость	п	1-АМ	.669	Рп	.608
30	Обычно еще до выполнения задания я могу оценить примерное время и другие ресурсы, которые потребуются для этого	п	2-СО	.515	Рп	.527
31	Мне легко работать на занятиях, если оно проходит в форме дискуссии или выполнения какой-то групповой работы	п	4-К	.541	Рп	.513
32	Мне удается донести до слушателей свою точку зрения в понятной для них форме	п	5-Р	.615	Рп	.574
33	Я храню информацию в сгруппированном по темам виде, чтобы упростить последующий доступ к ней	п	6-И	.520	Рп	.506
34	Обычно я задумываюсь, почему в изучении одного предмета я нахожу смысл, а в изучении другого – нет	п	1-АМ	.245	Рф	.320
35	Получив не очень высокие баллы за какое-либо задание, я пытаюсь понять, что делаю не так	п	2-СО	.516	Рф	.539
36	Участвуя в дискуссиях и групповой работе, я могу лучше понять сильные и слабые стороны своих коммуникативных умений	п	4-К	.561	Рф	.549
37	При поиске информации для выполнения учебного задания я стараюсь оценить, соответствует ли она рекомендациям преподавателя	п	6-И	.590	Рф	.598
38	Если меня начинает охватывать беспокойство по поводу моей учебы, то я могу отстраниться от этого и подумать, что мне поможет успокоиться	п	3-ЭС	.387	Фк	.341
39	Если общение с однокурсниками по учебным вопросам становится менее эффективным, я могу предложить какие-то новые правила, способы взаимодействия	п	4-К	.505	Фк	.505
40	Когда это необходимо, я нахожу способ быстро и точно зафиксировать необходимую информацию	п	6-И	.617	Фк	.583

41	Учеба в университете обычно приносит мне положительные эмоции	п	1-АМ	.719	Рп	.662
42	Часто я просто вставляю в свои письменные работы фрагменты из найденных где-либо текстов, так как у меня все равно не получится написать об этом так же хорошо	о	5-Р	.091	Рп	.122
43	Я не знаю, что могло бы мне помочь успокоиться, если сильно разволнуюсь во время экзамена	о	3-ЭС	.337	Рф	.184
44	Написав какой-либо текст, я стараюсь снова его перечитать, чтобы заметить ошибки и скорректировать спорные моменты	п	5-Р	.348	Рф	.395
45	Получив новое задание, я продумываю, где буду искать необходимую для его выполнения информацию	п	6-И	.614	Рф	.589
46	Иногда мне удается найти смысл в задании, которое сначала казалось мне бессмысленным – самостоятельно или с помощью других людей	п	1-АМ	.472	Фк	.494
47	Если у меня появляются новые более сложные для меня учебные задачи, я могу изменить организацию своей учебной работы, чтобы успешно с ними справляться	п	2-СО	.591	Фк	.598
48	Читая профессиональные, в том числе научные тексты, я обращаю внимание на типичные фразы, стиль изложения и другие особенности, чтобы использовать это при написании своих текстов	п	5-Р	.565	Фк	.572
49	Если у меня возникают трудности в работе с информацией, я могу обратиться за помощью, чтобы научиться делать что-то иначе	п	6-И	.471	Фк	.454
50	Если скапливается много заданий, я могу найти дополнительное время, чтобы их выполнить	п	2-СО	.535	Рп	.510
51	Мой ответ на экзамене часто бывает неполным, путанным и недостаточно логичным из-за волнения, даже если я хорошо знаю содержание экзаменационного билета	о	3-ЭС	.231	Рп	.194
52	Для меня не составляет труда удерживать в уме логику дискуссии	п	5-Р	.527	Рп	.498
53	Для меня не составляет труда совместно работать с однокурсниками над решением учебной задачи в интернет-пространстве (например, с помощью Google-сервисов, мессенджеров и т.п.)	п	6-И	.458	Рп	.405
54	При возникновении разногласий или конфликтов с кем-то из однокурсников или преподавателей я могу понять, в чем именно расходятся мои интересы и интересы другой стороны	п	4-К	.617	Рф	.614
55	Во время устного выступления я обращаю внимание на реакцию слушателей и стараюсь при этом понять, что мне удалось выразить лучше, а что – хуже	п	5-Р	.600	Рф	.613
56	Когда у меня появляются новые учебные задачи, я стараюсь найти и освоить эффективные для их решения способы поиска, представления и хранения информации	п	6-И	.701	Фк	.687

57	К ситуации оценивания (выступление на занятии, экзамен) я обычно отношусь как к хорошей возможности проявить себя с лучшей стороны и продемонстрировать свои знания	п	3-ЭС	.667	Рп	.639
58	Я задумываюсь о том, какие условия обучения для меня подходят больше: организованные преподавателем или организованные мною самостоятельно	п	1-АМ	.408	Рф	.462
59	Если в моей жизни происходят какие-то изменения, не связанные напрямую с вузом, я обращаю внимание на то, как это влияет на мое обучение	п	2-СО	.501	Рф	.519
60	Обсуждения с однокурсниками и преподавателями помогают мне лучше понять, зачем нужно изучать тот или иной предмет	п	1-АМ	.597	Фк	.546
61	Я могу организовать свою учебную деятельность так, чтобы получать от нее положительные эмоции	п	3-ЭС	.739	Фк	.650
62	У меня есть своя система планирования учебной работы, которая позволяет мне делать это достаточно эффективно	п	2-СО	.646	Рп	.601
63	Если я и переживаю по поводу правильности выполнения какого-то учебного задания, то это только помогает мне сделать его достаточно хорошо и тщательно	п	3-ЭС	.534	Рп	.476
64	Если у меня возникает конфликт или какие-то сложности в общении с преподавателем, то с этим ничего нельзя сделать, кроме как дождаться завершения изучения предмета, который ведет этот преподаватель	о	4-К	.040	Рп	.061
65	Я знаю, какой способ планирования учебной работы наиболее эффективен для меня (например: ведение списков задач, распределение по датам выполнения и др.)	п	2-СО	.615	Рф	.573
66	Я знаю, какие мои действия помогают чувствовать себя спокойно и уверенно во время экзаменов и при подготовке к ним	п	3-ЭС	.708	Рф	.571
67	Я замечаю, чем именно неписаные нормы и правила общения в том месте, где я учусь сейчас, отличаются от других мест моего обучения (школы, колледжа, другого вуза и т.п.)	п	4-К	.424	Рф	.438
68	Я замечаю, что во время обучения мой словарный запас пополняется профессиональными терминами	п	5-Р	.596	Рф	.590
69	Я задумываюсь о последствиях использования некачественных источников информации для моего образования	п	6-И	.569	Рф	.590

¹ К – ключ перевода ответов в баллы для прямой шкалы (п): 0, 1, 2, 3, для обратной (о): 3, 2, 1, 0.

² Ш1 – принадлежность пункта к шкалам, соответствующим содержательным компонентам (расшифровки индексов обозначения шкал приведены в табл. 1).

³ ФН1 – факторная нагрузка по результатам КФА на соответствие структурно-содержательной модели АК.

⁴ Ш2 – принадлежность пункта к шкалам, соответствующим уровням АК (расшифровки индексов обозначения шкал приведены в табл. 1).

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⁵ ФН1 – факторная нагрузка по результатам КФА на соответствие уровневой модели АК.

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ПСИХОЛОГИЯ ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ | EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Personal Predictors of Pedagogical Assessment of Ability in Student Actors

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One of the main way for the study of acting can be considered the process of training student-actors, in which the mechanisms and techniques of creating an image and assuming a role are unfolded and highlighted. Special attention in the study of this problematic should be paid to the factors contributing to the mastery of the profession. It is assumed that personal characteristics play a key role in the issue of successful training of a student-actor, because it is the actor's personality that can be considered as the main tool that the actor has in the art of acting transformation. The aim is to identify personal predictors of pedagogical assessments of acting abilities among student actors. Psychodiagnostic study using the following techniques: “16 personality factors” by R. Kettell and “Short portrait questionnaire of the Big Five” by M.S. Egorova and O.V. Parshikova, the scale of average assessments of acting abilities. It was revealed that two personality traits are associated with the pedagogical assessment of the acting skills of an actor student: “consciousness” (B5-10) and “sensitivity” (I, 16PF). They also contribute to this average estimate. In this regard important factors for the success of mastering the acting profession are consciousness, organization, focus on maintaining relationships in the learning process, as well as the sensitivity of the student actor to internal and external changes, the richness of his emotional experience.

Keywords: acting ability; Big Five; Cattel`s 16 Personality Factors Questionnaire; student actors; conscientiousness; sensitivity; K.S. Stanislavski.

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Личностные предикторы педагогической оценки способностей у студентов-актеров

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Изучение особенностей актерской деятельности в ситуации ее освоения представляет особый интерес, поскольку в этом процессе разворачиваются и подсвечиваются механизмы и техники создания образа, принятия на себя роли. Особое внимание при исследовании данной проблематики следует уделить факторам, способствующим освоению профессии. Предполагается, что личностные особенности играют ключевую роль в вопросе успешности обучения студента-актера, поскольку именно личность актера может рассматриваться в качестве главного инструмента, которым располагает актер в искусстве перевоплощения. Целью данного исследования было выявление личностных предикторов педагогических оценок актерских способностей у студентов-актеров. Проведено психодиагностическое исследование с применением следующих методик: «16 личностных факторов» Р. Кеттелла и «Короткого портретного опросника Большой пятерки» М.С. Егоровой и О.В. Паршиковой, а также шкалы усредненных оценок актерских способностей. Выявлено, что с педагогической оценкой актерских способностей студента-актера связаны две личностные черты: «сознательность-добросовестность» (Б5-10) и «чувствительность» (I, 16PF). Они также вносят вклад в данную усредненную педагогическую оценку актерских способностей, при этом больший вклад вносит первая из указанных черт. Так, важными факторами успешности освоения актерской профессии являются сознательность, организованность, ориентированность на поддержание отношений в процессе обучения, а также чуткость студента-актера к внутренним и внешним изменениям, богатство его эмоционального опыта, опыта переживаний.

Ключевые слова: актерские способности; Большая пятерка; опросник Р. Кеттелла; студенты-актеры; сознательность; чувствительность; К.С. Станиславский.

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Introduction

The question of which psychological indicators differentiate successful student actors from unsuccessful ones has been examined from various perspectives by researchers in the field of acting. For instance, A.F. Roslyakov, using the method of pedagogical experimentation, identified and described the motivational characteristics distinctive to these groups of student actors [6]. In a study based on material collected by V.S. Sobkin in O.P. Tabakov's workshop at GITIS, the method of ranking students by teachers according to their success level was used. This resulted in an averaged ability scale, which, along with personality trait scales by R. Cattell, underwent factor analysis [14]. Similarly, personality characteristics of successful and unsuccessful students were identified using the assessment scale for the discipline "Acting Mastery" [12]. For this purpose, profiles of personality traits of students—actors who were expelled and those who continued their studies after the first year—were also compared [13].

Thus, we believe that examining the personality characteristics of student actors through the lens of their success in training can be considered one way to identify the traits necessary for successful acting activity overall.

In 2023, the Center for Sociocultural Problems of Modern Education at the Psychological Institute of RAS developed a comprehensive research program on the individual personality, cognitive, and emotional characteristics of student actors. This program was based on the extensive experience of the laboratory staff in studying the psychological aspects of acting skills [5; 7; 8; 9; 10; 11; 12; 13; 14; 15; 16].

The program identified four main areas of study of the psychological characteristics of student actors: 1) Individual-personality characteristics; 2) Emotional sphere; 3) Cognitive sphere; 4) Behavioral style characteristics. These areas in turn defined the methodological framework, i.e., determined the choice of specific methods.

In March-April 2023, the battery of methods was tested on second-year student actors at one of Moscow's universities. Due to the volume of test material, respondents completed the questionnaires in four stages.

One of the main tasks of our research program was to identify individual-psychological factors associated with the success of student actors. The metric of success was decided to be the averaged expert assessment of acting abilities, combining the opinions of four theater teachers on the students' abilities. The article is devoted to the connections between psychological characteristics and the expert assessment of acting abilities.

Preliminarily, based on the results of correlation analysis, it was found that the averaged expert assessment was associated only with the scales of two methods, which will be considered in this work.

Methods

To measure personality characteristics, the "16 Personality Factors" questionnaire by R. Cattell (16PF) [4] and the "Short Portrait Questionnaire of the Big Five" (B5-10) [3] were used. The questionnaires were sent to respondents online using the "Anketolog.ru" service. Statistical data processing was performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 25 with correlation and regression analysis methods.

To assess acting abilities, the average ratings of four theater university teachers (theatrical masters) were used. They were asked to rate each student's acting abilities on a scale from 1 to 10.

Sample

The study involved 47 second-year students (22 women, 25 men) from one of Moscow's theater universities, aged 18 to 29 years ($M = 19.6$; $SD = 1.7$).

Research Results

The connection between the expert assessment of acting abilities was found only with two scales: factor I (toughness-sensitivity) (16PF) and "conscientiousness" (B5-10) (Table 1).

Table 1

Correlation of Expert Assessment of Acting Abilities with Factor I (16PF) and the "Conscientiousness" Scale (Short Portrait Big Five Questionnaire) (N = 47)

	Factor I (toughness-sensitivity)	"Conscientiousness" (B5-10)
Expert Assessment of Acting Abilities	0,301*	0,530**

Note: * – correlation is significant at the 0.05 level; ** – correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Additionally, a regression model was built to assess how well the external assessment of acting abilities is predicted by the above variables.

The results of the regression analysis showed that both independent variables (sensitivity and conscientiousness) significantly predict the external expert assessment of acting abilities ($F(2, 38)=12.1$, $p<0.001$). Moreover, the coefficient of determination $R^2=0.39$ indicates that our model explains 39.8% of the variance in the external expert assessment.

It is also important to note the influence of each of the two factors on the dependent variable (external expert assessment). It was found that out of the two variables, only the conscientiousness variable was a significant positive predictor ($B=0.45$, $t=4.29$, $p<0.001$), while Factor I showed only a tendency towards significant influence ($B=0.27$, $t=1.741$, $p=0.09$). Thus, the conscientiousness variable alone appears to be a more powerful predictor of the external expert assessment of acting abilities.

Furthermore, for additional verification, a single-factor model was constructed, including only the conscientiousness variable as a predictor of the external expert assessment of acting abilities. The single-factor model also predicted the value of the external expert assessment of acting abilities fairly well ($F(1, 41)=15.971$, $p<0.001$), but it explains 28% of the variance in expert assessment ($R^2=0.28$), which is almost 12% less than the two-factor model.

In this regard, we believe that the two-factor predictive model is more adequate in our case.

Discussion of Results

It is more reliable to predict the assessment of acting abilities based on the "conscientiousness" scale, also known as "diligence." A person with a high expression of this personality trait can be characterized as meticulous, organized, dedicated to the task at hand, and reliable. In other words, in the studied group, higher external evaluations from leaders (masters) were given to students who tend to attend classes systematically and are fully committed to the learning process of acting. Interestingly, previous studies have found a link between conscientiousness and academic achievement [23]. In the case of actor training, the ability to perform also plays the role of "academic achievement."

Let us turn to the results of previous works that studied the academic success of student actors in relation to their personality characteristics.

In A.F. Roslyakov's work, motivational differences were established between successful and unsuccessful student actors: the former predominantly have developmental motives and are actively interested in creativity, while the latter lean towards comfort and life-supporting motivation, characterized by inadequate self-assessment and a tendency to asthenic reactions. It is noted that successful students are driven by motives of "active activity, social utility, or creatively developing personal orientation" [6, p. 11]. In contrast, the opposite category of students demonstrated weak willpower, fear of difficulties, and "inability to cope with stressful situations, excessive worries, a tendency towards 'stage fright,' panic, irritability, and sometimes aggressive or 'refusal' reactions during training or creative work" [6, p. 12].

In the study by V.S. Sobkin and T.A. Feofanova, based on the personality profiles of student actors from the 1976 intake according to R. Cattell's model, the following correlates of teacher assessment of their "success" were identified through ranking from more capable to less capable. Among them were high scores on factors G ("high normative behavior") and Q3 ("self-control"), as well as a low score on scale F ("restraint"). This complex corresponds to the secondary scale F8, which in turn indicates a strong superego and the ability to suppress spontaneous self-manifestations. Thus, successful students, according to teachers, can control their emotionality, behavior, and act according to generally accepted notions of normativity [14, p. 222].

Based on the study by the same authors of male student actors from the 2010-2017 intakes, it was concluded that, unlike "successful" students, those "screened out" after the first year of study were characterized by a tendency towards "leadership, radicalism, non-recognition of authorities, individualism, and at the same time an orientation towards their inner world (absorbed in their ideas, passion for inner illusions)," as well as low self-control of behavior and emotions [13, p. 68].

As a result of the data analysis of all first- and second-year students obtained during 2010-2015 [12], it was found that the N scale ("diplomacy") is included in one factor with the assessment of acting mastery in both the first and second years. It indicates perceptiveness towards oneself and others, rational behavior, caution, restraint, and the ability to behave in society. At the same time, in the first year, the negative pole of the general factor is occupied by the M indicator ("dreaminess"), while in the second year, it is occupied by the B indicator ("intelligence"), showing a preference for concrete thinking over abstract thinking. It is noted that in the second year of the O.P. Tabakov Theater College, teachers, due to the specifics of working with students at this stage of training, "focus on the success of their professional interaction and mutual understanding with students" [12, p. 7]. In this sense, factor N, which captures a set of socially significant qualities, turns out to be key, as it facilitates mutual understanding and interaction between the student and the teacher and with stage partners.

We will summarize the features of student actors with varying degrees of ability to master the profession, as assessed by teachers (Table 2).

General Characteristics of Successful and Unsuccessful Student Actors

Successful students	Unsuccessful students
<p>1) possess motivation for active engagement and creative development;</p> <p>2) can manage their emotions and experiences, have high self-control;</p> <p>3) adhere to commonly accepted norms;</p> <p>4) strive to build harmonious interactions within the group and with the leader.</p>	<p>1) possess weak willpower, avoid difficulties;</p> <p>2) have a low ability to cope with their emotions and experiences;</p> <p>3) tend to ignore and violate commonly accepted norms;</p> <p>4) are prone to individualism and confrontation with the group and the leader.</p>

It should be noted that in the present study, the trait "conscientiousness" is significant in terms of successfully mastering the actor's profession. It implies reliability, demandingness, interest, and organization, which in turn contribute to maintaining stable relationships with the teacher, respecting them, and ensuring some stability and predictability in the learning process.

Thus, there are intersections in the meanings that teachers ascribe to the assessment of students' acting abilities: at different times in theater schools, it has been significant for teachers to establish contact with the student, to lead the learning process, and for the student to control their expressions and to be oriented towards the norms shared by the group, which is important in the context of collaborative learning.

It is worth noting that K.S. Stanislavsky, when discussing theatrical ethics and discipline, emphasized the importance of the creative collective's organization, the ability to reach mutual understanding, and adherence to norms and rules accepted in the professional community. He speaks of the primacy of "artistic discipline" in the theater, which begins within each individual and cannot be established by external directives [18, p. 289]. Essentially, it is built on conscientiousness and a diligent attitude toward one's work.

"Artistic discipline," along with artistic ethics and a sense of collectivity, helps create the actor's stage presence and readiness for joint action.

Let's also consider the contribution of Scale I—sensitivity, the richness of emotional experiences, and the ability to live through them—to the overall assessment of a student's acting abilities by master teachers. This can be explained by the fact that a key aspect of an actor's professional activity is the ability to "enter the character," reproduce the character's experiences on stage, and this is inextricably linked to the ability to live through various emotional states of different content and depth.

Speaking of the art of experiencing, K.S. Stanislavsky notes that it is impossible without "living feelings" [19, p. 75]. An actor must notice the smallest details of both external circumstances and their own experiences. After all, creating images requires a rich experience and sensitivity to what is happening (both externally and internally).

In this regard, sensitivity as a trait can be considered an important prerequisite for developing the ability to transform since it combines qualities such as receptiveness to feelings (including those of the character and stage partner), their understanding and expression, a developed imagination, and an artistic perception of the world. Therefore, despite the fact that, according to regression analysis results, this trait contributes less, it cannot be ignored because sensitivity is associated with the key acting ability to transform [14].

It should also be noted that in foreign studies, professional actors differed from students in acting and non-actors in terms of emotional instability and vulnerability (volatility, neuroticism) [21; 22; 24; 25]. Furthermore, professionals, compared to students, demonstrated more pronounced abilities to generate original ideas, indicating a richness of their perceptual experience and imagination [22]. In addition, due to the necessity to finely feel and immerse in the character, the topic of actors' ability to set boundaries between their personalities and the characters arises, as their absence can lead to negative changes in the emotional sphere [20]. However, it is worth noting that not all theatrical systems require "immersion in the character," as evidenced by the "Diderot's Paradox" [1; 2; 17]. Therefore, on the one hand, not all masters may rely on sensitivity as a trait in evaluating acting abilities, but on the other hand, for success in acting, it may be more important not just to have high sensitivity but to be able to work with one's own experiences, transform them, reproduce them on stage, etc. These assumptions require separate verification.

Conclusions

Based on the results obtained in this study, the following conclusions can be made:

- 1) In assessing acting abilities, teachers focus on the expression of at least two personality traits: sensitivity (according to R. Cattell's model) and conscientiousness (according to the five-factor personality model).
- 2) If a student does not demonstrate a responsible approach to learning, diligence, and conscientiousness, even with a high level of emotional sensitivity, they are more likely not to be evaluated as successful in terms of acting abilities.
- 3) The personality trait "conscientiousness" (B5) is one of the main factors contributing to a master's perception of a student actor's ability to act.

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