



THE FORMATION OF PSYCHOLOGY AS A SCIENCE IN THE 17TH – 20TH CENTURIES

Oqnazarova Mavluda Nurboevna. History teacher at the Asian University of Technologies.

Abstract: This article analyzes the stages of the formation and development of psychology as an independent science in the 17th-20th centuries. The processes of transition from initial philosophical views to experimental psychology, the contribution of the main scientific schools and figures of this period are studied. The article emphasizes that the scientific and methodological foundations of modern psychology were formed precisely during this period. The connection between the scientific traditions of the West and the East is also highlighted.

Keywords: history of psychology, 17th–20th centuries, experimental psychology, philosophical foundations, formation as a science, methodology, scientific schools.

Introduction. The 17th century is considered an important period for the sciences of biology and psychology. In particular, the discovery by the French scientist Descartes (1596-1650) that behavior has a reflex (involuntary) nature, and the explanation that the work (activity) of the muscles in the heart is controlled by the internal mechanism of blood circulation are of great importance. In particular, the reflex (Latin reflexus reflex) was interpreted as a legitimate response of the organism to an external influence and became a means of objectively understanding neuromuscular activity. It became possible to explain the emergence of sensations, associations, and passions.

In the process of establishing the scientific basis of psychology, the English scientist Hobbes (1588-1679) completely rejected the soul, recognizing mechanical action as the only reality, and emphasized that its laws were also the laws of psychology. On its basis, epiphenomenalism (Greek eri - extreme, rhainominon - supernatural phenomenon) arose, that is, psychology became a doctrine of mental phenomena that occur as a shadow of processes in the body.

Main part: The Dutch scholar Spinoza (1632-1677) explained consciousness as a reality that is inseparable from the larger matter, that is, as something tangible. He was the proponent of the principle of determinism (from Latin determinar - I determine), that is, the doctrine that natural and social phenomena, including psychic phenomena, are determined by objective causes.

The teachings of the great German thinker of the 17th century, Leibniz (1646-1716), influenced the discovery of mathematics, including integral and differential calculus. The picture of the psyche is not presented as an arithmetic sum, but as an integral one. Based on the idea of the continuous limitation of representations, Leibniz distinguished perception (immediate unconscious perception) from conscious perceptions, which include apperceptions, attention and memory. Leibniz introduced into psychology the idea of the nature and continuous



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development of the activity of the psyche and the complex relationship between conscious and unconscious manifestations of the psyche.

In the 17th century, empiricism and sensualism led to the rise to the forefront of the doctrine of the superiority of experience and sense knowledge over "pure" reason, that is, the doctrine that there can be no innate ideas and principles in the mind. This doctrine was vigorously defended by the English philosopher and educator John Locke (1632-1704). He is considered the founder of empirical psychology. The doctrine that all knowledge comes from experience was of great importance for psychology. Because it requires a thorough study of the ways in which the concrete facts of mental life pass from simple to complex phenomena. According to J. Locke, there are two sources of experience, one is the activity of the external sense organs (external experience) and the other is the internal activity of the mind, which perceives its own private brain (internal experience). A person is born without any ideas. His soul is a "clean slate" on which later experience is written. Experience consists of simple and complex ideas. These ideas are formed either from sensations or from internal perception (reflection). In the latter case, consciousness is directed not to real objects, but to its own product and remains with itself. J. Locke's doctrine of reflection was based on the assumption that a person can learn psychological facts in an introspective way. This again puts forward the doctrine of dualism. They were also opposed to each other in terms of the possibility of knowing consciousness and the external world using fundamentally different methods.

The fact that J. Locke's doctrine of external and internal experience has a dual nature gave rise to the development of both materialist and idealist doctrines. The French materialists, led by Hartley (1705-1784), and the Russian materialists, led by A.N. Radishchev (1749-1802), based their knowledge of the world on external experience and argued that the internal content of the human psyche is the basis for the interaction of man with the environment.

Results and discussions: By the 18th century, great progress had been made in the study of the nervous system (Galler, Prochazka). As a result, the doctrine arose that the psyche is a function of the brain. The English researcher Charles Bell and the Frenchman Francois Magandi revealed the difference between efferent and motor nerves. On its basis, a new concept of the reflex arc appeared in psychology. As a result, voluntary (conscious) and involuntary (unconscious) types of reflexes were discovered.

Under the influence of the above scientific discoveries, the reflex theory of the Russian scientist I.M. Sechenov (1892-1905) came to fruition, and this theory makes it possible to reveal the physiological foundations of the science of psychology, the mechanisms, and the nature of the specific properties of brain reflexes.

It should be said that research and discoveries in the field of psychology did not end there, but rather, work in this area was further intensified and effective results were achieved.

At the first meeting of psychologists in 1923, K.N. Kornilov put forward the task of restructuring psychology. Psychologists who played a very important role in the development of the science of psychology were: B. Ananov, P.P. Blonsky, S.L. Rubinstein, L.S. Vygotsky, R.S. Nemov and others, as well as later great scientists who emerged in Uzbekistan. Among them are M.G. Davletshin, E.G. Goziyev, M. Vohidov, V.A. Tokareva. R.Z. Gainutdinov, V.M.



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Karimova, G.B. Shoumarov, R.I. Sunnatova, Z.T. Nishonova and others. The scientists mentioned above, with their ideas and national ideologies, paid attention to the formation of such qualities of thinking in young people as "independence", "criticality".

The first center of pedagogical and psychological thought was established in Tashkent in 1918, and later in Shymkent. The pedagogical museum and pedagogical laboratory are universal educational institutions that cover all tasks related to education. This support is provided by the development of teaching methods, tested here and distributed to other educational institutions of the republic. This organization of work made it possible to implement. The regulation on the pedagogical laboratory states that this place should be the center of pedagogical thought and work.

Therefore, on the one hand, every innovation in psychological work should be given the opportunity to use the rich experience accumulated in the laboratory of educational work, this opportunity should be given directly to schools. Along with other laboratories and offices, there is also an experimental psychological laboratory in the pedagogical laboratory and the pedagogical museum, where various psychological experiments were carried out. On April 1, 1919, Kavman wrote a letter to the Croatian Commissioner of Education, emphasizing the need for the state to take in children with impaired vision, deafness, mental illness, and children with unbalanced psychological development and psyche. For the same purpose, he proposed the creation of a whole system of special institutions. Croatian's proposal is noteworthy in several respects. First, this is a complex work, and not a single psychoneurological disease is left out. Secondly, this plan provides for several stages in strict sequence.

1. Diagnosis of disease (research level);
2. Treatment of patients (practical medical level);
3. Education and training of patients (practical education level).

The first level is planned to be implemented by a psychological laboratory, the second level by a special treatment institution, and the third level by schools. One of the institutions in Turkestan, the "Uzbek State Scientific Research Institute", now the Kori Niyozi Scientific Research Institute of Pedagogical Sciences, was founded in 1929, and to this day this institute is the only center for creating pedagogical concepts of teaching and the theory of education in schools and preschool institutions. In the early 1930s, the following departments were included in the institute:

1. Social Hygiene.
2. Economics.
3. Pedagogical Psychology.
4. Psychological Laboratory.

Since its establishment, the Institute has been engaged in in-depth research of the national mentality and social environment, creating lessons taking into account the



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psychological, socio-cultural characteristics of children. The main areas of activity of the Institute were as follows:

1. Organizing scientific expeditions;
2. Studying the character of children;
3. Training pedagogical personnel.

Conclusion: The activities of this institute are closely connected with the names of such scientists as Bendrikov, Leventuert, Zavarova, Yusupov, Tokanaev, Debenzov, Mirsharipov, Mukhiddinov. In the 30s, one of the scientists who made a great contribution to the world science of psychology, Alexander Romanovich Luria, worked at this institute. Based on the research conducted within his institute, he later published his work "Ob istoricheskem razvitiye poznavatel'nykh protsessov" - "On the historical development of cognitive processes". Another scientist who made a great contribution to the formation of the science of psychology in Uzbekistan is P. Ivanov. In 1927, he organized a laboratory of experimental psychology at the Uzbek Pedagogical Institute (Pedagogical Academy) in Samarkand.

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