ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

TEACHER'S HANDBOOK

UCHPEDGIZ 1950

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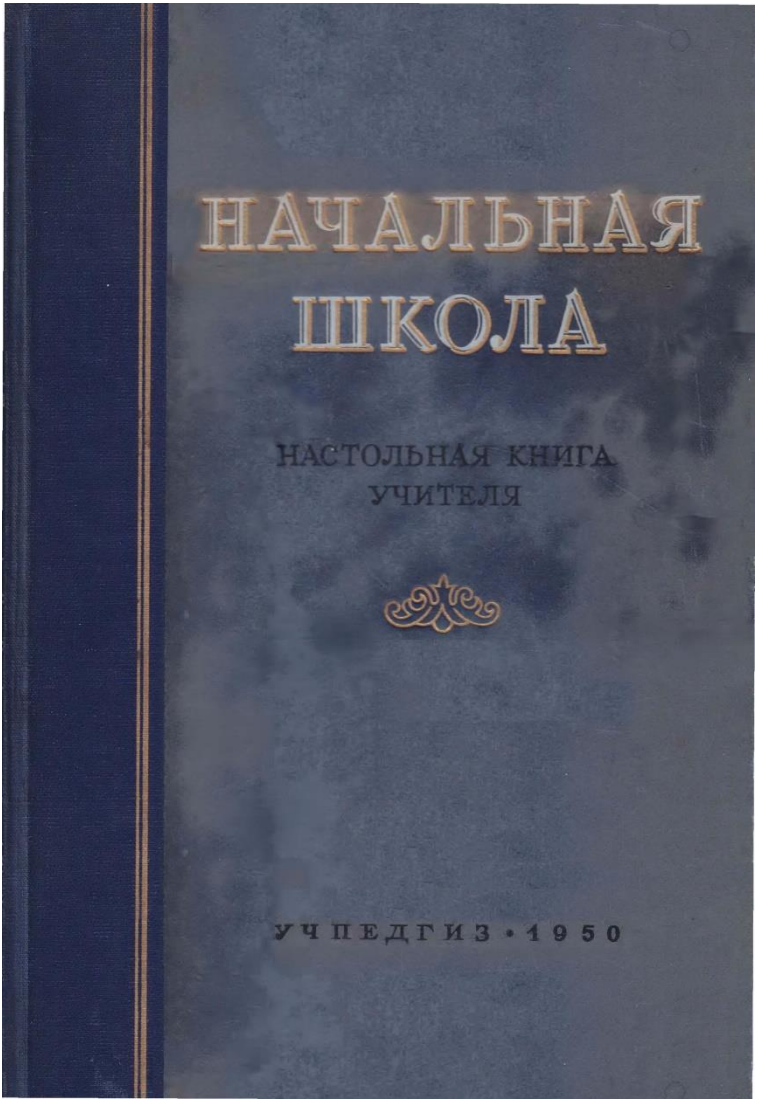
НАЧАЛЬНАЯ
ШКОЛА
НАСТОЛЬНАЯ КНИГА
УЧИТЕЛЯ
УЧПЕДГИЗ • 1950

Academy of Pedagogical Sciences
of the RSFSR

Elementary School

Teacher's Handbook

EDITED BY
PROF. M. A. MELNIKOV

STATE EDUCATIONAL AND PEDAGOGICAL
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Moscow 1950

Академия
Педагогических Наук РСФСР

НАЧАЛЬНАЯ ШКОЛА

НАСТОЛЬНАЯ КНИГА
УЧИТЕЛЯ

ПОД РЕДАКЦИЕЙ
ПРОФ. М.А. МЕЛЬНИКОВА

ГОСУДАРСТВЕННОЕ
УЧЕБНО-ПЕДАГОГИЧЕСКОЕ ИЗДАТЕЛЬСТВО
МИНИСТЕРСТВА ПРОСВЕЩЕНИЯ РСФСР
МОСКВА • 1950

ERRORS AND CHANGES

Page	Line	Printed	Should read
224	14 bottom	The detachment is the main form of organisation of pioneers.	The detachment is part of the squad, the main form of the organisation of pioneers.
345	10 top	All exercises	In some cases , exercises
594	3 bottom	6. Kamyshin — Stalin — grad — Cherkessk. grad — Cherkessk. 7. Penza — Kamensk.	6. Kamyshin- Stalingrad. 7. Stalingrad-Cherkassk. 8. Penza-- Kamensk.

Contents

PREFACE

The “Handbook” of the teacher of the first grades of the seven-year and secondary school highlights the main issues of teaching and communist education of primary school children. The book reveals to the teacher the theoretical foundations of teaching and raising children and gives practical instructions on general issues of the organisation and methodology of the teacher’s educational work and on the teaching of individual academic subjects.

The “Handbook”, however, does not replace textbooks on pedagogy and methods, as well as special methodological manuals on certain teaching issues. The teacher, starting from the content of the “Handbook”, as a practical guide, he must expand and deepen his knowledge, using for this purpose the literature indicated in the book on certain issues of teaching and upbringing of children.

The “Handbook” contains specific practical instructions based on pedagogical theory and the best experience of teachers. However, the teacher should treat these instructions not as ready-made recipes, but as material that determines the general direction in solving a particular practical issue.

The book draws the teacher’s attention to raising the ideological level of teaching as the most important condition for the successful solution of the tasks of communist education.

The content of the first part of the book reveals the fundamental foundations of the Soviet system of public

education, the tasks and content of primary education and the role of the teacher in the Soviet school.

The second part of the book is devoted to the presentation of the general basics of learning. It provides brief information on pedagogical psychology and didactics, necessary for the teacher to properly build the learning process.

The third chapter highlights the issues of education of Soviet patriotism, communist morality, artistic and physical nutrition of children and reveals the tasks, content and means of education children in the pioneer organisation and in the family.

The following four parts of the book outline the main methods of teaching individual academic subjects: Russian, arithmetic, history, geography, natural science, singing, drawing and physical education.

The issues of education in the book are revealed in close connection with the upbringing of children. The fundamental foundations of education, set out in the third part of the book, are concretised when revealing the system and methods of teaching individual subjects of primary education.

The eighth part of the book highlights the tasks, content, organisation and methods of extra-curricular work with primary school children.

The ninth part outlines some issues of school studies, especially important for the head of the school, and also indicates the main pedagogical and methodological literature on the education and training of primary school children. The appendices to this part provide background documentary material.

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The reference material was selected by N. I. Boldyrev.

The “Handbook” reflects the experience of many Soviet teachers:

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The “Handbook” is the first attempt to give a teacher a manual that he could be guided by in his daily work with

children. Using the book, the teacher can bring a lot of new things to his practice, but at the same time, undoubtedly, he can do a lot of that, what is given in the book, to develop and improve through its practicality-scientific activity.

Please send feedback, conclusions and materials for the "Hand Book" to: Moscow, 64, Lobkovsky Lane, house No. 5/16, Institute of Teaching Methods APN RSFSR.

I. SCHOOL AND TEACHER IN THE USSR

SCHOOL IN THE USSR

Successes of Public Education in the USSR

The subject of the legitimate pride of the Soviet people is the successes achieved by our country in the field of public education after the victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution.

The Soviet state received a heavy legacy from tsarism in the form of illiteracy of the broad working masses. The number of literates in Russia before the October Revolution was 33%, i.e. out of three people, only one was literate. Only about 50% of all school-age children studied in Russian primary schools, as for children of non-Russian nationalities, the so-called “outskirts” of tsarist Russia, they, with few exceptions, did not attend school. Secondary and even more so higher education was almost affordable exclusively for the children of the ruling classes. Gymnasiums, real schools, universities and institutes were privileged educational institutions. An insignificant stratum of the children of workers and peasants in them did not change this situation.

“... the government takes money from nine-tenths of the people for schools and educational institutions of all kinds and teaches the nobles with this money, blocking the way to the burghers and peasants!”[1]

Over the years of the existence of Soviet power, the cultural level of the people has increased many times. This has been achieved primarily as a result of the expansion of the school network and the implementation since 1930 of the law on universal compulsory primary education in rural areas and seven-year education in cities and working settlements. An important role was also played by the work on the elimination of illiteracy among the adult population, organized with broad public participation on the basis of the decree of the Council of People’s Commissars signed by V. I. Lenin on December 26, 1919.

The main means of raising the cultural level of the people is a comprehensive school - primary, seven-year and secondary. Criticizing the policy of the tsarist government in the field of education, Lenin wrote with indignation that “four fifths of the younger generation condemned to illiteracy by the serf state system of Russia”, that the government does not care about the organisation of schools, about increasing allocations for education in accordance with the actual needs and requests of the people.

The Soviet government, despite the difficult economic state of the country, immediately after the Great October Socialist Revolution began to implement extensive measures for the development of school education, relying on the activity of the workers themselves, before whom the path to knowledge and enlightenment opened.

In the address of the People’s Commissar of Education dated October 29. In 1917 it was said: “Every truly democratic government in the field of education in a country

[1] Lenin Op., vol. XVI, p. 415.

where illiteracy and ignorance reign, it should set as its first goal the struggle against this darkness.

It should achieve universal literacy in the shortest possible time by organisation of a network of schools that meet the requirements of modern pedagogy, and the introduction of universal compulsory and free education... Everywhere in Russia, among the urban workers in particular, but also among the peasants, a mighty wave of cultural and educational movement has risen...; to meet them halfway, to support them in every way, to clear the way for them is the first task of the revolutionary and popular governments in the field of public education".

In the early years, the Soviet government's efforts were focused on rebuilding the school network, which had suffered greatly during the imperialist and civil wars. But already in 1924, the number of students in primary schools exceeded the pre-war level and grew at an unprecedented rate in subsequent years. By the fifteenth anniversary of the Great October Socialist Revolution, universal compulsory primary education had been largely implemented in our country.

It is necessary to note a particularly large increase in educational institutions providing secondary and higher education, which in tsarist Russia was inaccessible to the broad masses of working people.

Speaking at the XVIII Congress of the CPSU (B), J. V. Stalin said: "From the point of view of the cultural development of the people, the reporting period was truly a period of cultural revolution. The introduction of compulsory primary education in the languages of the nationalities of the USSR, the growth in the number of schools and students of all levels, the growth in the number of specialists graduating from higher schools, the creation and strengthening of a new, Soviet intelligentsia—this is the general picture of the cultural rise of the people."[1]

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[1] J. Stalin, Questions of Leninism, ed. 1st, p. 587.

The great achievements of the Soviet people in the field of education, the right of citizens of the USSR to education are legislatively enshrined in the Stalinist Constitution and are really ensured by universal compulsory primary education, free seven-year education, a system of state scholarships for distinguished students in higher education, education in schools in their native language, organisation in factories, state farms, machine-tractor stations and collective farms of free industrial, technical and agronomic training of workers.

Such real guarantees of the right to education are not provided and cannot be provided even in the most developed capitalist countries. For example, in the USA, the right to education is formally proclaimed, but in fact it is used by the bourgeoisie and other wealthiest segments of the population. As for workers, this is a right for them, especially with regard to secondary and higher education, it is an empty sound, because education in secondary and higher schools is associated with such material costs that are not available the vast majority of workers. Many of the workers are unable to educate their children even in elementary school. About this the statement of the US Secretary of Justice Clark testifies. "At present," he said at the National Citizenship Conference on May 9, 1947,—there are several million children in the United States who are not in school, more than two million children attend completely unsatisfactory schools; three million adults have never attended school and ten million they have received such insufficient education that they are actually illiterate."

This is understandable. In capitalist states, the ruling circles do not care much about educating the people or try to limit them to primary education, without which it is impossible to have literate workers and obedient soldiers who can master modern technology. As for secondary and

higher education, it is usually a privilege of the bourgeoisie. These schools train intellectuals who can faithfully serve the exploitative classes.

The special political nature of the socialist State, where there are no antagonistic classes, no exploitation of man by man, also determines the truly democratic character of popular education in our country. The Soviet school is generally accessible and popular in the full sense of the word. Such a school could only have emerged as a result of the victory of the socialist revolution.

Heavy damage was caused to school education during the Great Patriotic War. According to the data of the Extraordinary Commission for the Investigation of the Atrocities Committed by the Nazi invaders, 82,000 people were destroyed, primary and secondary schools with 15 million students before the war, students, and 334 higher educational institutions, where 283 thousand students studied. It would seem that such colossal losses will slow down the development of education in the country for a long time. However, life has shown otherwise. As the temporarily occupied territories were liberated, schools and other educational institutions were quickly restored and started classes, thanks to the heroic efforts of workers, teachers and students themselves. This testifies to the strength and vitality of the socialist system, to the irresistible desire of the Soviet people for knowledge and enlightenment.

During the difficult years of the war, a significant number of students were forced to stop studying and go to factories and factories, collective farms and state farms, in order to strengthen the defence power of the socialist motherland by their labour. Comrade Stalin highly appreciated this patriotic feat of Soviet youth: 'The unprecedented labour feats of Soviet women and our glorious youth, who bore the brunt of labour in factories and factories, in collective farms and state farms, will forever go

down in history. In the name of the honour and independence of the Motherland, Soviet women, boys and girls show valour and heroism on the labour front. They proved worthy of their grandfathers and sons, husbands and brothers defending their Homeland from the German—Fascist fiends.[1]

In order to enable young people who were interrupted in school due to wartime circumstances to continue their education, in 1943 the Soviet Government established seven-year and secondary schools for working youth, and in the following year, 1944—primary and seven-year schools for rural youth. Young people who graduate from these schools on-the-job successfully continue their education in technical schools and higher educational institutions.

The establishment of schools for working-class and rural youth testifies to the untiring care of the party and the Government for education, a care that did not cease even during the most difficult years of the war, when all the forces of the people were directed to the defence of the honour and independence of the socialist motherland.

At present, thanks to the care of the parties and the Government about public education, the Soviet general education school is entering a new stage of its development. In accordance with a government decree in 1949, all children who have completed the fourth grade of school are accepted into the fifth grade of seven-year and secondary schools. This event marks the universal transition to universal seven-year education.

[1] Stalin, On the Great Patriotic War of the Soviet Union, ed. 5th, p. 161.

Party and Government Policy in the Field of Public Education

The basis for the development of culture and education in our country is the policy of the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet government.

The organiser and leader of the Bolshevik Party, Lenin, repeatedly pointed out that the bourgeoisie deliberately, guided by its own selfish interests, removes the working people from knowledge and culture, condemns the masses of the people to a state of ignorance and darkness: "The interest of the capitalist class, the interest of the entire bourgeoisie is to leave the workers ignorant and fragmented..."[1].

The Bolshevik Party considered the overthrow of autocracy, the destruction of bourgeois-serfdom orders, the establishment of the dictatorship of the working class to be the main prerequisite for the cultural rise of the people, the spread of enlightenment among workers and peasants. This revolutionary way of cultural development of the country was criticised and attacked by the Mensheviks, who tried their best to prove that the socialist revolution must be preceded by the cultural rise of the proletariat and all working people.

The historical experience of our country has proved that the Bolsheviks' point of view turned out to be the only correct one. It was on the basis of the workers' and peasants' power and the Soviet system that our country made a cultural revolution and in a short time overtook the capitalist states in terms of the level of education of the working masses.

A distinctive feature of the Soviet system is the active participation of the masses in the governance of the state, in

[1] Lenin, Op., vol. II, p. 563.

the political life of the country, in the development of its economy and culture, in the creation of new forms of socialist community. This participation requires high culture and education from the workers, mastery of science and technology. "... you will not get enough of crushed capitalism," Lenin said.—We need to take all the culture that capitalism has left and build socialism out of it. We need to take all science, technology, all knowledge, art. Without this, we cannot build the life of a communist society."[2]

Lenin elaborated on the same idea in detail in his famous speech at the III. Congress of the RKSM, urging young people to master science, to enrich their memory with knowledge of the riches that humanity has developed, to use all the progressive things that were created in the past and necessary for building a new, socialist society.

J. V. Stalin also spoke about the enormous importance of science and the need for deep mastery of it in his speech at the First Congress of the Komsomol: 'The working class cannot become the real master of the country if it does not manage to get out of its lack of culture, if it does not manage to create its own intelligentsia, if it does not master science and.. A fortress stands before us. This fortress is called science with its many branches of knowledge. We must take this fortress at all costs..."

The Party and the Government consider science and enlightenment, the educational and cultural development of the entire population, as the most important means of socialist construction, strengthening the strength and power of our motherland, and increasing the productivity of labour.

The role of enlightenment and communist education is particularly growing in the period of our country's gradual transition from socialism to communism.

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[2] Lenin, Op., vol. XXIV, p. 65.

In the conditions of the socialist system, there are all the prerequisites for solving this problem. 'We want to make all the workers and all the peasants cultured and educated, and we will do this in time,' said Comrade Stalin in the report of the Central Committee of the CPSU(B) at the XVIII. Congress of the CPSU(B).

The literacy and culture of the working people are a necessary condition for understanding the Party's policy, which reflects the vital interests of the Soviet people, and for mastering Marxist-Leninist theory, which is a powerful tool for the revolutionary transformation of life on the basis of socialism and communism. Without serious education, without knowledge of the basics of modern science, young people cannot actively participate in building a communist society, fully use the driving forces of Soviet society for the benefit of the motherland.

That is why the Party and the Government pay so much attention to the development of education, strengthening the school, and reaching out to the entire younger generation of our country.

This radically distinguishes our socialist state from capitalist states, in which the school is transformed into an instrument of class rule by the bourgeoisie, where the right to education is the privilege of the ruling classes, and the people—workers and peasants—are forced to limit themselves to the rudiments of knowledge or remain completely illiterate.

Principles of the Soviet System of Public Education

Public education in the Soviet State is based on truly democratic foundations.

The leading principle of the Soviet system of public education is that all educational institutions are accessible to all citizens of the USSR, regardless of gender, nationality, race or class. In this way, our public education system is radically different from the public education systems of capitalist states, including the former tsarist Russia, which are imbued with class and class restrictions, racial and national discrimination.[1]

In every capitalist State there are parallel schools for the bourgeoisie and other well-to-do strata of the population and schools for the working people.

The former provide young people, mainly from the ruling classes, with a relatively broad education, open up access to higher education institutions; they are well equipped and provided with qualified teachers. The latter give a reduced education and do not provide free promotion to the highest levels of the school. These schools are mostly poorly equipped and lack qualified teachers. The division of society into antagonistic classes inevitably creates ambivalence in the school system, even in those States where the right of all

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[1] Discrimination—diminution of rights; in inter-national relations—establishment of lesser rights for representatives of non-governmental organisations of any State than those granted to other States; within the State-establishment of lesser rights for any nation or nationality than those granted to other peoples. Racial discrimination—the disenfranchisement of colonial and dependent countries crushed by capitalist oppression; bullying of national minorities in capitalist countries, even to the most bloody form, such as the Lynch trial. Racial discrimination is based on the misanthropic 'theory' of racism.

citizens to education is formally proclaimed. In capitalist States, private initiative in opening schools with high tuition fees is widely encouraged. These schools are accessible only to the well-off segments of the population and therefore inevitably have a privileged social composition of students. Formally, every citizen can send their child to such a school, regardless of class affiliation; in fact, this opportunity is used only by the financially well-off segments of the population.

Often, these "objectively" acting factors that delay the cultural growth of the broad strata of the population in an exploitative society are supplemented by a direct, albeit secret, ban on admitting children of the "lower" strata of the population to secondary schools.

An example of such protection of the privileged nature of secondary educational institutions is the well-known circular of the Minister of Education of tsarist Russia Delyanov, who was forbidden to accept in the gymnasium "children of cooks, lackeys, cooks, small shopkeepers," etc. In one form or another, these shameful phenomena take place in all capitalist states. "... the more cultured the bourgeois state was," Lenin said, "the more subtly it lied, claiming that the school could stand outside politics and serve society as a whole."[1]

Finally, national and racial discrimination is typical for capitalist countries in the field of public education.

Thus, in the country of the "advanced" bourgeois democracy—the USA—blacks are deprived of the right to attend educational institutions for whites. Special schools are being created for them. As a rule, these schools are poorly equipped, and reduced salary rates are set for teachers. The bulk of the Negro population, due to the insufficient number of schools, remains either illiterate, or is forced to limit themselves to the rudiments of education. Special, degraded schools for natives are also being created

[1] Lenin, Op., vol. XXIII p. 199.

in the vast colonial possessions of England, France and other countries. The indigenous population is a dark, illiterate mass, mercilessly exploited by colonisers. The outrageous mockery of the indigenous population is covered up with false phrases about “promoting” the economic and cultural uplift of the indigenous population.

The opposite picture is presented by the state of culture and literacy of workers of all nationalities in the Soviet Union. During the years of the existence of Soviet power, the peoples of the former “outskirts” of tsarist Russia have reached a high level of cultural development. Everywhere, in all-Union and autonomous republics, universal compulsory primary education has been implemented, universal seven-year education is being introduced; a network of secondary schools, technical schools and higher educational institutions has been widely developed.

The growth of enlightenment among the non-Russian peoples of the USSR is characterized by the following comparative data. Before the revolution, there were only 160 schools in Uzbekistan with 17.2 thousand students. children, and currently there are more than 4.5 thousand in the republic. schools and almost a million students. 5 pedagogical 10 teacher institutes, 22 pedagogical colleges have been created to train teachers. There are 2 universities and a large number of higher educational institutions that train qualified national personnel for all sectors of the national economy and socio-cultural construction. In the Tajik SSR in 1914, one student accounted for 2.5 thousand people, in 1939—178 students per one thousand population.

If the number of students in secondary schools in 1939 in the USSR as a whole increased by about four times, then in Kyrgyzstan—by 30 times, in Turkmenistan—by 25.3 times, in Kazakhstan—by 10 times, in Armenia—by 7.5 times, etc.

Writing has been created for more than 40 nationalities. Education in schools is conducted in the native language of

students. In non-Russian schools, knowledge is given to the same extent as in schools with instruction in Russian.

A unified system of teacher training has been established. In many Union and autonomous republics, boarding schools have been established for students with full maintenance of students at state expense.

There are no examples of such a powerful cultural growth of peoples in the world history of the development of enlightenment, and they cannot exist in the conditions of a class exploitative society. Only the socialist system has opened the way to knowledge and enlightenment to all the peoples of the Soviet Union, only as a result of the consistent implementation of the Leninist-Stalinist national policy, all conditions were created for the cultural rise of every nationality of our great country, for the flourishing of the culture of every people, a culture national in form and socialist in content.

This world-historical conquest was achieved thanks to the fraternal help of the great Russian people to the peoples of all nationalities of the Soviet Union.

The truly democratic character of public education in the USSR is also expressed in the equal right to education of men and women.

In the former tsarist Russia, women's rights to education were restricted in every possible way. There were fewer women's educational institutions than men's. In women's gymnasiums, compared with men's, knowledge was given in a reduced, reduced volume. Among non-Russian peoples, women were completely illiterate.

Immediately after the conquest of power by the working class, women gained access to schools and other educational institutions on an equal basis with men. The shameful and barbaric attitude towards women, imposed by the tsarist government, was completely eliminated.

"We do not have in Russia," Lenin wrote in 1921, "such meanness, vileness and meanness as the disenfranchisement

or inferiority of women, this will outrage- a relic of serfdom and the Middle Ages, renewed by the selfish bourgeoisie and the stupid, intimidated petty bourgeoisie in all, without a single exception, the countries of the globe"[1].

In the Soviet school, both boys and girls of all nationalities study on an equal basis. In 1939, the number of women in higher educational institutions of the USSR was 43.1%, and in secondary specialised-schools—51.6%.

If we take the higher educational institutions of European countries, then in 1937 the number of women in relation to the total number of students there was 19.8%, and in Germany under the fascist regime—only 15.5%.

In the Soviet state, there are no "schoolteachers", after which young people cannot go to secondary or higher educational institutions. And, on the contrary, such "dead-end schools" are deliberately created in capitalist countries in order to make it difficult for the children of working people to access secondary and higher education. In the Soviet Union, this social injustice was completely destroyed by the practical implementation of the principle of school unity.

In accordance with the democratic principle of freedom of conscience proclaimed and consistently pursued by the Soviet government, the school in the USSR was separated from the church on the basis of the decree of the Council of People's Commissars of the RSFSR of January 21, 1918.

The separation of the school from the church is formally proclaimed in some bourgeois-democratic states. But nowhere, except in the USSR, this principle is not carried out strictly and consistently. Religious influences penetrate the school of capitalist countries for a variety of reasons channels. In most capitalist States, schooling is confessional (religious) in nature, because the reactionary bourgeoisie views religion and the church as a powerful and convenient

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[1] Lenin, Op., vol. XXVII, p. 26.

tool for deception and exploitation of workers. The reactionary imperialist bourgeoisie is making every effort to ensure that the church is able to introduce into the creation of the younger generation the false bourgeois morality dictated by the exploitative interests of the capitalists, which religion deduces from the “dictates of God”.

The consistent implementation of truly democratic principles of the organisation of public education in the USSR is ensured by the fact that all schools are in the hands of the state.

The Soviet government vigilantly guards the interests of the workers. The policy of the party and the Government in the field of education expresses the vital interests of the whole people, their aspirations and aspirations for a joyful and happy life.

Due to the fact that the school is in the hands of the socialist state, the planned development of the school system is ensured in the country networks, faster growth of public education among the culturally-the peoples of the past, the wide coverage of working children by schools and other educational institutions, the full coherence of the programs of all stages of education and a single, communist orientation of education and upbringing of the younger generation of the Soviet people.

The Soviet School System

Public education of children in the USSR begins with preschool age.

State preschool institutions, kindergartens and pre-school-These orphanages are designed for children from 3 to 7 years old.

Communist education of children is carried out in these institutions.

In accessible forms, children get acquainted with nature and socialist reality and acquire the simplest behavioral skills in a socialist dormitory, the cell of which is the preschool itself.

The kindergarten organises the social life of children, is filled with-playing games, walking, the simplest types of child labour, reading and telling material accessible to children. Games, work, storytelling introduce children to the life of nature, to the life and work of Soviet people. A large place is given to listening to music, singing, rhythmic movements with musical accompaniment, drawing, modelling, paper cutting, etc.

Strict sanitary and hygienic regime and medical supervision, rational nutrition are established in preschool institutions; children the simplest hygiene skills are instilled; natural factors are widely used to strengthen health; in the summer, urban children are taken to dachas.

A variety of activities and exercises contribute to the normal physical development of children, the strengthening of their health, the development of sensory organs and mental abilities, the initial formation of moral qualities arising from the requirements of communist morality, and, ultimately, the upbringing of healthy, vigorous, cheerful children who have the necessary data for success, studying at school.

In tsarist Russia, preschool education was in its infancy. Individual preschool institutions were created by private individuals and some public organisations.

It was only after the Great October Socialist Revolution that preschool education began to develop rapidly in accordance with the government-approved state plans in the field of public education.

The steady quantitative and qualitative growth of preschool institutions shows the greatest concern of the Soviet Government for children and for a working woman who can safely engage in industrial and social work, knowing that in a preschool institution her children are provided with everything necessary for their proper upbringing and preservation of health.

The central link of the public education system is a comprehensive school of three types—primary, seven-year and secondary.

The primary school is a four-year school for children aged 7-11.

The seven-year school is designed for children from 7 to 14 years old; its first four grades correspond to elementary school.

The secondary school is a ten—year school, children from 7 to 17 years old study there; the first four grades of secondary school correspond to elementary, the first seven grades correspond to a seven-year school.

In primary school, the foundations are laid for further education of children in seven-year or secondary school.

Education in the Soviet primary school is fundamentally different from education in the pre-revolutionary school, first of all, by its content, the communist orientation of education and nutrition.

Pre-revolutionary elementary school provided mainly elementary reading, writing and numeracy skills. A lot of time was devoted to religious education in it. Information on natural history, geography and history was reported in

reading lessons in an extremely limited volume and was fragmentary in nature.

Any attempts to update the content of education, to make it more scientific, to expand the range of knowledge on natural science and geography were suppressed by tsarist officials from the Ministry of Public Education.

The Soviet primary school not only equips children aged 7-11 with reading, writing and numeracy skills, but also gives them genuine scientific knowledge (of course, in a form accessible to children). At school, children receive correct ideas about the life of nature, about the history of their native country, get acquainted with the socialist reality, are brought up in the spirit of love for their great motherland, in the spirit of communist morality.

In the first three grades of school, children are taught Russian, arithmetic, drawing, singing and receive physical education. Scientific knowledge about nature and society is communicated to students in the lessons of explanatory reading, combined with observations, excursions, experiments, etc. The material in the books for reading is given taking into account the educational and educational tasks of the school and is characterized by a deep and diverse content. A significant place is given to affordable for children, works of classical and modern fiction and folk art-fairy tales, songs, proverbs, sayings, fables, poems, stories. The variety and content of the material contribute to expanding the horizons of children, arousing interest in science, fostering artistic taste, and developing correct literary speech. In the fourth grade, the range of academic subjects is expanded; in addition to Russian, arithmetic, drawing, singing and physical training, the teaching of the history of the USSR, geography and natural science is introduced.

Special attention in the initial training is paid to the Russian language and arithmetic, the study of which the curriculum is given the most the amount of time compared to

other subjects. In non-Russian primary schools, teaching is conducted in the native language of students, and Russian is mandatory as a special subject of study.

Classes in primary school are complemented by extracurricular activities of various content and forms: conducting matinees in connection with anniversaries and memorable days; excursions to the family, museums, historical monuments, collective farms and state farms; reading the best examples of classical and modern fiction, as well as popular science books, using a projection lamp; demonstration of school films; organisation circles of young naturalists, young technicians, amateur performances; skiing, skating, outdoor games and other types of sports and physical education classes. All this fills the life of students with interesting and exciting activities that broaden their horizons, help children spend their leisure time wisely, show initiative and self-activity.

A huge role in educational work with children belongs to the school pioneer organisation.

Gathering of pioneers, detachments and units are distinguished by a variety of content that educates children in the spirit of communist morality, contributing to the assimilation of the rules and norms of the socialist community, expand the interests of pioneers in the field of science, technology, art, sports, and the study of their native land.

Classes in elementary school are complemented by a variety of the content and forms of extracurricular work: the conduct of the parties in connection with anniversaries and memorial days; excursions in nature, museums, historical monuments, and in the collective and state farms; reading best examples of classic and modern fiction and popular science books, with the use of the projection lamp; demonstration school movies; organisation circles of young naturalists, young technicians, amateur performances; skiing, skating, outdoor games and other types of sports and physical

culture classes. All this fills the life of students with interesting and exciting activities that broaden their horizons, help children spend their leisure time wisely, show initiative and self-activity.

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The middle link in the secondary school system is seven-year school. The first four classes work for elementary-school senior (V—VII) provide knowledge in fundamentals of Sciences in this volume, to have graduated from the seven-year school was able to successfully continue their education both in General and in vocational high school, and would have been prepared and are ready to expand their knowledge if they stop training and get a job in factories, farms or in state and public institutions.

A ten-year secondary school completing the system of general education, its main task is to train contingents for higher education. In addition, some graduates go to work in state and public institutions, as well as in economic organisations, acquiring the necessary skills either practically or on targeted short-term courses.

Rapid mastery of a certain profession by graduates of school it is provided with a high level of general education, as well as some preparation for practical activities that students receive at school.

The first seven grades of secondary school work according to the seven-year school program, while the higher grades (VIII-X) complete the study of the basics of science in accordance with the requirements that the socialist state imposes on general secondary education, based on the vital

interests of the Soviet people, on the task of training highly educated cadres of builders of socialism with a communist, Marxist-Leninist worldview.

In addition to primary, seven-year and secondary schools designed for the normal school age, the Soviet system of public education has similar general education schools for young people working in production, agriculture and institutions. All of these schools offer on-the-job training. Graduates of working-class and rural youth schools enjoy the same rights as those who have graduated from ordinary general education schools, since they teach according to the same programs.

Children who are unable to attend general schools due to disabilities such as blindness, deafness, and mental retardation are assigned to special schools for the blind, deaf, and mentally disabled. Here, along with a general education in the scope of primary or seven-year school, they receive labour training, which gives them the opportunity to become useful members of a socialist society. Primary education is compulsory for all these categories of children.

Orphanages are organised for children who have lost their parents at the expense of the state. Children from orphanages are trained in the nearest schools. During extracurricular hours, children work in educational workshops organised at orphanages, where they acquire the work skills necessary in life. Upon reaching the age of 14, children in orphanages are sent to vocational schools and secondary vocational schools or, depending on their abilities and aptitudes, continue their education in secondary schools.

The concerns of the Soviet state are not limited only to the creation of a rational school education system and the involvement of the child population in it. The Party and the Government are aggressively seeking to improve the quality of schools.

Special decisions of the party and the government defined the basics of school programs and the organisation of

the educational process, established teaching methods, a system for checking and evaluating students' knowledge. The main thing that draws the attention of teachers is the consciousness, strength and systematic nature of students' knowledge, the ideological nature of learning and its connection with life, the correspondence of marks set by teachers to the actual level of students' knowledge.

In order to improve the quality of teaching at the school, according to the decree of the Council of people's Commissars of the USSR dated June 21, 1944, entered the final exams in the IV and VII classes and exams for matriculation in grade, middle school, established awarding gold and silver medals of the students who showed the exams for matriculation outstanding achievements in excellent behaviour. The establishment of gold and silver medals created an incentive for deeper and more thorough assimilation of the established amount of knowledge by students.

On the basis of the secondary school, a system of vocational education is being built—vocational schools and schools of the Federal Law, technical schools and other secondary vocational educational institutions, as well as higher educational institutions—institutes and universities.

Vocational schools and schools of the Federal Law prepare cadres of skilled workers for industry, transport and construction organisations. Vocational schools have been established to train mechanics of machine and tractor stations and other agricultural workers. The network of vocational schools and schools of the Federal District is continuously expanding. During the current five-year plan, they should give the national economy 4.5 million skilled workers.

The duration of training in vocational schools is 2-3 years. They focus on vocational training. At the same time, general education subjects are studied that correspond to the specialty profile of future workers (mathematics,

physics, chemistry, etc.) and expand their general cultural and political horizons (Russian language and literary reading, history, geography and the Constitution of the USSR). In FZO schools, training lasts 6-12 months. During this time, students acquire a certain qualification through practical work in production and study political literacy. The maintenance of students (hostel, food, uniforms) is provided at the expense of the state. The trade schools and schools of the FZO are under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Labour Reserves of the USSR.

Specialists of average qualification (technicians, agronomists, teachers, etc.) are trained in secondary vocational educational institutions—industrial and agricultural technical schools, art and pedagogical colleges, medical and obstetric schools, etc. The duration of training in secondary vocational schools is 3-4 years. Admission of students is based on examinations from among persons with education in the scope of a seven-year school.

Training of highly qualified specialists for all industries national economy and socio-cultural construction is carried out in institutes with 4-5 years of study and at universities. The right to enter higher educational institutions on the basis of competitive examinations is enjoyed by persons who have completed ten years of secondary education and have graduated from secondary vocational educational institutions. Graduates of secondary schools who have graduated with a gold or silver medal are accepted without exams.

At institutes, universities and research institutions, post-graduate training of researchers and teachers of higher education is carried out. The number of postgraduates is accepted by persons who have completed higher education, who have shown inclination and ability for research work and have passed the established exams. The duration of postgraduate study is 3 years.

Persons who have completed postgraduate studies and successfully defended a PhD thesis on a chosen topic are awarded the degree of Candidate of Sciences.

Secondary and higher education in a number of specialties can be obtained not only by studying in stationary educational institutions, but also through an extensive system of correspondence education, on the job. Distance learning is also organised for the course of a seven-year and secondary general education school. Persons who study independently are granted the right to take exams for seven-year and secondary school in the order of the external. Externs hold exams in schools allocated for this purpose by regional, regional departments of public education and ministries of education of the ASSR. Those who have passed the exams for a seven-year school receive certificates of the established sample, who have passed exams for secondary school receive a certificate of maturity and acquire the right to enroll in secondary and higher specialised educational institutions on a general basis.

All this testifies to the truly democratic nature of the public education system in the USSR, about the real opportunity not only for children, but also for every Soviet citizen to get the education they want.

Tasks of a Comprehensive School

"Education," says Comrade Stalin, "is a weapon, the effect of which depends on who holds it in their hands..."[1]. In the hands of the Soviet state, education is a weapon of the struggle for communism.

The Soviet school educates the builders of a socialist society, devoted to the Lenin-Stalin party, leading our people to communism.

The Soviet school, guided in all its work by the policies of the party and the government, trains highly educated builders of communism, armed with the theory of Marxism-Leninism, educates the younger generation in the spirit of communist morality, in the spirit of life-giving Soviet patriotism and Soviet national pride, instils Bolshevik idealism and principled principles, hatred of everything old, obsolete, reactionary, devotion to the new, advanced, progressive, forms such qualities of a Soviet person, as honesty and truthfulness, courage and courage, willpower and firmness of character, cheerfulness and cheerfulness, readiness to overcome any difficulties, strengthen the strength and power of the socialist state, protect its honour and independence. Soviet The school educates the younger generation in the spirit of Stalinist friendship between the peoples of the USSR, in the spirit of respect for all peoples fighting for their liberation from capitalist and colonial slavery, instils in students a noble sense of social duty, incompatible with individualism and greed of bourgeois morality, educates careful attitude to socialist property, respect for Soviet laws and conscious discipline, the source of which among Soviet people is high idealism and dedication to the cause of communism.

The main means for the school to solve all these problems is the teaching of the basics of sciences. Education

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[1] J. Stalin, Questions of Leninism, ed. 10th, page 610.

equips students with knowledge, forms their worldview, educates moral qualities that meet the needs of a socialist society.

In order to ensure communist education and upbringing of the younger generation, it was necessary to radically revise the content of curricula, the entire system of organisation of education, as well as the structure and way of life of students in the Soviet school.

The old school was a school of cramming, a school of drill, it forced people to assimilate a lot of unnecessary, superfluous, dead knowledge. Such a school, Lenin pointed out, must be destroyed, but at the same time it is necessary to be able to choose from it what is necessary for communism, to be able to take the entire sum of human knowledge, having previously critically processed it.

These instructions formed the basis for the construction of school programs. Everything that served the exploitative society was thrown out of them; the reactionary falsification of the conclusions of science, which was carried out in favour of the class interests of the bourgeoisie and landlords, was etched out; genuine scientific knowledge was ensured, contributing to the formation of a Marxist-Leninist worldview among students, their assimilation of Soviet ideology. The reworking of programs from the point of view of the only scientific theory, the theory of Marxism-Leninism, laid a solid foundation for the development of the Soviet socialist school, its successful solution of the task of educating a generation capable of finally establishing communism.

In the Soviet school, no academic subject can stand aside from the fundamental tasks of communist education. All teaching at the school is permeated with the spirit of partisanship, Bolshevik idealism. It serves the interests of the people and the socialist state, promotes the establishment of the noble and sublime Soviet ideology in the minds of students. Education is carried out taking into account the

specifics of the content of each subject and the age capabilities of children.

The most important task of the educational work of the school is the education of Soviet patriotism—one of the driving forces of the development of our society—and Soviet national pride, which prevented the penetration into the consciousness of the younger generation of the adulation of bourgeois culture, servility to foreigners, which was a reactionary tradition of the ruling classes of tsarist Russia and was an integral part of the ideology of internal counterrevolution after the victory of the Great October Socialist Revolution.

Of crucial importance for the education of Soviet patriotism and national pride is the familiarisation of students in the lessons of history, the Constitution of the USSR, literature, geography with the advantages of the Soviet socialist system over the capitalist system; bright showing the heroic deeds of the Soviet people during the Civil and Great Patriotic Wars, during the years of Stalin's five-year plans and the restoration of the destruction caused to our country by the German-fascist barbarians; showing the high moral character of the Soviet people; the superiority of socialist culture and science over bourgeois culture and science; the selfless struggle of the leading figures of the past and the masses against tsarism, serfdom and capitalist exploitation; showing the leading and organizing role of the Bolshevik Party, which, under the leadership of Lenin and Stalin, led the Soviet people to world-historical victories.

The development and deepening of feelings of Soviet patriotism and national pride is facilitated by familiarization of students in physics, chemistry, natural science, mathematics with the great figures of Russian and Soviet science, who enriched world science with the greatest discoveries and increased the glory of the peoples of our country (Lomonosov, Mendeleev, Lobachevsky, Popov, Yablochkov, Sechenov, Pavlov, Michurin, etc.).

The knowledge that is communicated to students in the Soviet school is necessary for them to live, to actively participate in socialist construction. At the same time, this knowledge is the foundation for the formation of a Marxist-Leninist worldview, Bolshevik idealism, and moral qualities of a Soviet person. Without arming students with deep, conscious and solid knowledge, the school cannot introduce Soviet ideology into the consciousness of students, educate them into people who are creatively proficient in Marxist-Leninist theory—this a powerful means of the socialist transformation of public life, an instrument of building a communist society. That is why the party and the government pay exceptional attention to improving the quality of education at school, taking care not only about programs and textbooks, but also about the organisation, about teaching methods, about improving ways to test and evaluate students' knowledge, about creating healthy incentives for them to learn the basics of sciences more deeply and thoroughly.

The Soviet school also sets as its task the maximum satisfaction of the interests of young people, the expansion of their socio-political horizons, the formation of individual interests in various fields of science, technology, literature, art, sports. Mostly these tasks are solved in the classroom, because the curriculum and programs of our school reflect all aspects of the multifaceted socialist culture. However, students also have interests that go beyond the curriculum. They are born in the classroom, under the influence of the surrounding socialist reality, in the process of independent reading, etc. To satisfy these interests and demand-extracurricular and extracurricular activities are aimed at young people. The forms of its holding are very diverse—clubs, lectures, reports, literary debates, excursions, concerts, performances, matinees, evenings, art Olympiads, sports competitions, trips to explore the native land, exhibitions of creative achievements, etc. Each student

voluntarily, in accordance with his prevailing interests, is included in one or the other a kind of extracurricular work, develops and improves his abilities in order to further use them to enrich the material and spiritual culture of the country of socialism.

In addition to schools, a lot of work with students outside of school hours out-of-school institutions for children are held—palaces and pioneer houses, stations for young technicians and young naturalists, houses of artistic education, excursion and tourist stations, children's parks of culture and recreation, stadiums, water and ski stations, sports schools. In the summer, playgrounds and pioneer camps are organised, annually covering several million children's. An extensive network of children's extracurricular institutions—central, regional, district—is the pride of Soviet society and it once again testifies to the greatest Leninist-Stalinist care that the younger generation of future builders of communism is surrounded by in our country.

The school prepares children for working life in a Soviet, socialist society, where the masses take an active part in government, have the right to unite in various public organisations, the right to participate in rallies, meetings, demonstrations, etc.

Therefore, the skills of social life, a sense of collectivism, the ability to resolve issues together in the interests of the whole team are instilled in children from the very first steps of their stay at school. Duty in classrooms, the election and work of class organizers, headmen of clubs, commissions for various mass events, the creation of student committees in charge of the life of the entire student collective—are a serious school of public education of children, their gradual introduction to the consistently democratic order that characterises Soviet society, the development of organisational talents and abilities necessary for active participants in socialist construction.

The most active, advanced part of the students, starting from the age of 9, unite on a voluntary basis in a mass children's political organisation of young pioneers. The pioneer organisation, developing children's self-activity in every possible way, carries out the political education of its members, fights for the high academic performance of pioneers, for their deep assimilation of the basics of sciences, for the strengthening of conscious discipline, for the reasonable organisation of children's leisure.

A huge role in the communist education of senior students belongs to the school Komsomol organisations that unite the advanced, most conscious and politically active part of students who are able to lead the entire student body. The work of Komsomol and pioneer organisations is an integral part of the entire work of the school for the communist education of students.

The Soviet school is designed to educate the 'brave tribe of builders of socialism' (Zhdanov). It successfully solves this problem, being armed with advanced Marxist-Leninist pedagogical theory, inspired by the great ideas of building a communist society. Workers of the Soviet school firmly remember that 'the Soviet system cannot tolerate the education of young people in the spirit of lack of ideas, in the spirit of indifference to politics. It is necessary to protect young people from corrupting foreign influences and organize their upbringing and education in the spirit of Bolshevik ideology' (Zhdanov).

Personnel of Public Education

The new Soviet school, radically different from the bourgeois school, also required new cadres of teachers who were devoted to the cause of communism and who were ready to selflessly serve the socialist motherland in the noble and responsible task of educating and educating the younger generation. The best part of the teachers of the pre-revolutionary school, the most advanced and progressive, closely connected with the people, knowing their aspirations and aspirations, quickly took up the position of the Soviet government and enthusiastically began to create a new school, receiving from the Soviet state assistance and all the conditions for mastering the Marxist-Leninist theory of communist education as a guide in their practical work.

Simultaneously with the re-education of the old teaching cadres, a huge amount of work has been carried out in our country to train new teachers imbued with the ideas of communism. Teachers of primary schools and I-IV grades of seven-year and secondary schools are trained in four-year teacher training schools. The curriculum and programs of schools are designed to provide future teachers with serious general education, political and professional pedagogical training for teaching all subjects in primary school from grade I to IV inclusive. There are also special pedagogical schools and departments attached to general pedagogical schools for the training of physical education teachers.

Teachers of grades V—VII of seven-year and secondary schools are trained in two-year teacher training institutes in the departments of Russian language and literature, history, natural geography, and physics and mathematics.

Four-year pedagogical institutes with faculties of Russian language and literature, history, geography, physics and mathematics, biology, foreign languages, and physical culture have been established to train teachers of grades VIII-X of secondary schools. A significant proportion of those who

graduate from public universities are also sent to work in secondary schools.

At pedagogical educational institutions, there are correspondence departments for teachers who do not have an education corresponding to their position. Correspondence courses are conducted on-the-job at the school.

In order to systematically supplement and update the knowledge acquired by teachers in pedagogical educational institutions, the country has organised an extensive system of professional development of teachers. Basically, this work in the form of courses of various durations is carried out by regional, regional and republican teacher training institutes. A significant part of the work on improving the skills of teachers is also assigned to stationary pedagogical educational institutions (teacher training schools, teacher and pedagogical institutes, universities). Tens of thousands of teachers pass through the advanced training system every year.

To provide teachers with daily methodological assistance, district, city, and in some Union republics, regional pedagogical offices have been created. Teachers have the opportunity to receive methodological assistance and exchange pedagogical experience also in their methodological associations—cluster (several nearby schools) for teachers of grades I-IV and district for teachers of grades V. Annual district and city teachers' meetings have become traditional before the start of the school year and during the winter school holidays.

Pedagogical and methodical journals, manuals, books on pedagogy and psychology are published to help teachers and schools. In addition to improving their business skills, all teachers regularly study the theory of Marxism-Leninism independently and in groups. The basis of this work is the study of the 'Short Course in the History of the CPSU (B)',

biographies of Lenin and Stalin, as well as the works of Marx, Engels, Lenin and Stalin.

Scientific development of issues of education, training and upbringing of the younger generation is carried out by the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences of the RSFSR, established by the government during the Great Patriotic War. The establishment of the Academy is one of the signs of the great attention that the party and the Government pay to the school and the development of public education in the country.

SOVIET TEACHER

The Soviet teaching staff is one of the most powerful detachments of our people's, socialist intelligentsia. Teachers are fighters of a large army of workers of the ideological front. They are designed to educate courageous and persistent people who know the basics sciences, highly ideological and cultural, able to overcome any difficulties, infinitely devoted to their homeland, the party of Lenin-Stalin, capable of completing the construction of communism in our country. The tasks of building a communist society are closely intertwined with the educational tasks of the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet state. Therefore, in our country, exceptional attention is paid to the teacher who carries out the tasks of communist education, education and training of the younger generation.

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The Position of a Teacher in the USSR

In 1923, V. I. Lenin, in one of his last works, Pages from a Diary, wrote: "The people's teacher should be raised to a height at which he has never stood and does not stand and cannot stand in bourgeois society. This is a truth that does not require proof."[1]

In his greeting to the First All-Union Teachers' Congress, Comrade Stalin noted that "the phalanx of People's teachers

[1] V. I. Lenin, Op., vol. XXVII, p. 389.

is one of the most necessary parts of the great army of the working people of our country, building a new life on the basis of socialism."[2]

Guided by the instructions of the great leaders V. I. Lenin and J. V. Stalin, the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet Government are taking all measures to improve the material and legal status of teachers, to increase the level of their pedagogical and political training.

The resolution of the Central Committee of the CPSU (b) of August 25, 1932 "On curricula and regime in primary and secondary schools" emphasized with exceptional force the increasing role of the teacher in teaching children the basics of sciences, educating them of conscious discipline and a communist attitude to study and work. In the same resolution, the Central Committee of the CPSU (B) obliged the organs of national education and party bodies "... to provide the teacher in every possible way in his work requires the necessary conditions for the successful fulfilment of responsible and honourable duties for the training and upbringing of the younger generation."

The Soviet government highly appreciates the noble and responsible work of the teacher. Thousands of Soviet teachers have been awarded orders and medals. Many teachers honourably bear the honorary title of Honoured Teacher of the republic. The best of the best teachers of the Soviet country were elected to the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, to the supreme Soviets of the Union republics and to local councils of workers' deputies.

In no capitalist country does a teacher occupy and cannot occupy such an honourable position as in the country of victorious socialism. In pre-revolutionary Russia, the life and work of an elementary school teacher, especially a rural one, was exceptionally hard and dreary.

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[2] V. Stalin, Op., vol. 7, p. 3.

A. P. Chekhov, in one of his conversations with A.M. Gorky, spoke with pain and bitterness about a rural teacher: “He is hungry, downtrodden, intimidated by the possibility of losing a piece of bread. And he needs to be the first person in the village, so that he can answer all his questions to the peasant, so that the peasants recognize in him a force worthy of attention and respect, so that no one dares to yell at him... humiliate his personality, as everyone does with us: a sergeant, a rich shopkeeper, a foreman and the official who holds the title of inspector of schools.” In the same conversation, A. P. Chekhov spoke about the loneliness and abandonment of a rural teacher, who lives like a hermit for about 9 months a year, becomes dull from longing and loneliness.

The situation of teachers in capitalist countries remains difficult.

Capitalism hates genuine culture and knowledge, because the more enlightened the worker and peasant are, the clearer the path of liberation from capitalist slavery, the closer the hour of the death of the imperialist camp. The bourgeoisie keeps the people’s teacher in the “black body” and tolerates it is only because modern production requires literate workers, while the bourgeoisie forces the teacher to educate the children of the workers into submissive slaves and executors of her will.

Only in the Soviet country, where education is carried out in the interests of the whole people and for the people, the teacher is not isolated from the people, but closely connected with him, his work at school is serving his socialist fatherland, serving the Soviet people.

Soviet pedagogical science assigns the teacher a central place in the school: he is the main organiser and leader of the pedagogical process. The results of the school’s work, the quality of students’ knowledge ultimately depend on the teacher’s training, on his pedagogical skills and personal qualities.

Even K. D. Ushinsky emphasized the exceptional role of the teacher in the upbringing and education of children: “There is no doubt that much depends on the current routine in the institution, but the most important thing will always depend on the personality of the direct educator standing face to face with the pupil: the influence of the educator’s personality on the young soul is that educational force that cannot be replaced by textbooks, moral maxims, or a system of punishments and rewards. Of course, the spirit of the institution means a lot, but this spirit lives not in the walls, not on paper, but in the character of most educators and from there it already passes into the character of the pupils.”[1]

The remarkable Russian democrat V. G. Belinsky compared the teacher, a tutor with a gardener. “No matter how old the comparison of a teacher with a gardener is, but it is deeply true—” he wrote.—Yes, the baby is a young pale green sprout, barely peeking out of its grain, and the educator is a gardener who looks after this delicate emerging plant.”

The role of the primary school teacher of a seven-year school is especially great and responsible. He alone conducts all the educational work with the class and gives children initial knowledge about nature and society. For the first time, he reveals to the children a treasure trove of knowledge, forms their character, lays the foundations of their communist worldview.

In order to successfully cope with this work, an elementary school teacher must have the appropriate training, the qualities necessary for a Soviet teacher, and above all he must be a highly ideological and loving person.

[1] K. D. Ushinsky, Sobr. Op., vol. I, p. 13.

Raising the Ideological and Political Level of the Teacher

The quality of educational work, ultimately, depends on the level of consciousness of the teacher, on his ideological conviction, on his understanding the policy of the Soviet state and its duty to the country, to the people. M. I. Kalinin, addressing the excellent teachers of urban and rural schools, said: "... the teacher's worldview, his behaviour, his life, his approach to each phenomenon somehow affect all students... We can safely say that if a teacher is very authoritative, then some people have traces of the influence of this teacher for the rest of their lives. That is why it is important that the teacher looks after himself, so that he felt that his behaviour and his actions were under the strongest pressure a control that no other person in the world is under."[2]

The main source from which teachers can draw material for ideological growth are the works of the founders of scientific socialism - Marx, Engels, Lenin, Stalin. Especially a big one assistance in arming the Soviet teaching staff with the most advanced revolver-Stalin's "Short Course in the History of the CPSU (B)" provides the theory.

Biographies of Lenin and Stalin are a powerful means of ideological and political education of teachers. They provide wonderful material about the life and work of our great leaders, about the main stages of the development of Bolshevism, they contribute to raising the ideological level of the teacher.

The study of Marxism-Leninism is necessary for all teachers. Comrade Stalin at the KHUSH Congress of the CPSU(b) pointed out that "... one cannot consider a real

[2] M. I. Kalinin, On Communist Education and Training, ed. Academy of Pedagogical Sciences of the RSFSR, 1948, p. 157.

Leninist a person who calls himself a Leninist, but who is locked into his specialty, locked into, say, mathematics, botany or chemistry and sees nothing beyond his speciality."[3]

Only by mastering the Marxist-Leninist science of the laws of the development of human society, of the laws of the development of a socialist society, Soviet teachers can become genuine educators of new people- active builders of communism.

Equipping Teachers with Diverse Knowledge

Only a teacher who has a broad outlook and high culture, who is armed with modern pedagogical theory and knowledge of best practices, can achieve serious success in the upbringing and education of children.

The teacher needs to know well the current state of scientific knowledge in the subjects that he teaches at school, he must constantly monitor the development of this knowledge and study at the same time the history of the sciences taught.

It is of great importance to familiarise the teacher with the scientific discoveries and inventions of the great Russian people—patriots of our motherland: Lomonosov, Yablochkov, Mendeleev, Popov, Mechnikov, Pavlov, Timiryazev, Michurin, Tsiolkovsky and many others. The study of the achievements of Russian science and culture will broaden the horizons of the teacher, as well as facilitate his work on patriotic education of students.

Along with a deep and thorough knowledge of the subjects taught, the teacher needs to master the basics of pedagogy, psychology and teaching methods of individual subjects well. These sciences will help the teacher should

[3] J. Stalin, Questions of Leninism, ed. II, pp. 598-599.

approach the solution of the main issues related to his pedagogical activity correctly.

Soviet pedagogy, defining the goals, objectives and content of communist education of the younger generation, thereby answers the question—what to teach? At the same time, it reveals the principles of teaching and upbringing, resolves the main issues of the organisation and methodology of educational work and, therefore, gives an answer to the question—how to teach? The teacher finds more detailed instructions about the organisation and methods of teaching and upbringing in the courses of private methods. They specifically define the forms and methods of teaching academic subjects. in general and individual sections of these academic subjects. Psychology reveals the patterns of mental activity of students and helps the teacher to organize educational work more correctly.

It is also of great importance to familiarize teachers with the history of pedagogy. Studying the history of pedagogy will help the teacher to master the pedagogical legacy of the past. Pedagogy, as the science of upbringing, education and training of the younger generation, has been developing for centuries. A lot of people have worked hard to create it. The best representatives of advanced pedagogical thought have left many valuable statements about the process of education and upbringing, which have not lost their significance even today. Especially significant contribution to pedagogical science was made by our national progressive pedagogy in the person of To. D. Ushinsky, V. G. Belinsky, N. G. Chernyshevsky, N. A. Dobrolyubov and others. Their statements need to be studied, critically processed, and all valuable, advanced use in the practice of educational work.

It is especially important and necessary for a teacher to study and use in the educational work of the utterances of the founders Marxism-Leninism - Marx, Engels, Lenin, Stalin, as well as prominent figures of the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet state—M. I. Kalinin, A. A. Zhdanov, F. E. Dzerzhinsky,

S. M. Kirov and others - about the communist education of the younger generations.

The teacher also needs to know the resolutions of the Party and the Soviet Government on school and education. The Central Committee of the CPSU(B) and government bodies have published a number of important policy and legislative documents on public education. In these documents, the foundations of the educational policy of the Soviet state are formulated, as well as fundamental instructions are given on all the main issues of the content, organisation and methodology of the work of the Soviet school. The study and implementation of the current resolutions of the party and the government are undoubtedly one of the most important conditions for improving the quality of communist education, education and training of the younger generation.

It is also very important for a teacher to know the works of such outstanding Soviet teachers as N. K. Krupskaya, A. S. Makarenko, S. T. Shatsky.

Education in the Soviet school is radically different from the bourgeois one. The Soviet school builds its educational work in other conditions, based on the laws inherent in a socialist society. Therefore, the teacher needs to carefully study the positive experience of educational work accumulated by the Soviet school throughout its existence, to use in his practice the best examples of educational work of masters of pedagogical labour. However, one should not mechanically transfer the same methods and techniques of education and training to all schools, one should not blindly copy the work of even the most experienced teachers. A creative approach is needed to use the experience gained by practical school workers.

The most important form of expanding the ideological, political and cultural horizons of primary school teachers and improving their pedagogical qualifications is independent work on themselves, consisting in regular and systematic

reading of political, pedagogical and fiction literature. Daily work on oneself gives the teacher the opportunity to always be at the level of the requirements that the Soviet state imposes on him. A teacher should not only teach, but also constantly study himself.

Addressing the order-bearing teachers, M. I. Kalinin said: "The teacher gives his energy, blood, everything that he has of value to his students, to the people. But, comrades, if today, tomorrow, the day after tomorrow you give everything you have, and at the same time you will not replenish your knowledge, strength, energy again and again, so you have nothing left. On the one hand, the teacher gives, and on the other hand, like a sponge, absorbs, takes all the best from the people, life, science, and gives this best back to the children. And if a Soviet teacher wants to be a real advanced teacher today and tomorrow, then he must always go with the most advanced part of the people. In this case, no matter how much he gives to his students, but if he eats, takes the best traits, properties from the people, then he will always have an excess of these nutritious juices for the children."[1]

The best Soviet teachers tirelessly take care of their ideological and cultural growth, systematically improve their pedagogical qualifications.

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[1] M. I. Kalinin, On Communist Education and Training, ed. APN RSFSR, 1948, p. 166.

Начало учебного года

Beginning of the school year

Creative Initiative of the Teacher

A Soviet school teacher is required to show creative initiative and inquisitiveness, relentless search for new ways to improve educational work.

In educational work, pattern, routine, cowardice of thought and blind imitation are unacceptable. The most remarkable methodological developments are not able to replace the teacher with his creative thought, his pedagogical skills and thoughtful organised efforts.

There can be no universal recipes in the education and upbringing of children, designed for all occasions. Methodological developments should not bind the teacher's initiative, but help him, orient him, wake him up and direct his thought.

The teacher is not a craftsman, but a master of educational work, a creator, an engineer of his craft. It is impossible to relate to pedagogical work, as a craft. You need to think, search, take the initiative and be bold in solving pedagogical issues put forward by life. It should be borne in mind that there are no and cannot be once and for all established methods and methods of education and training in school. Each technique and method turns out to be good or bad, depending on the content of the training, the characteristics of the students, on the specific conditions in which education and training takes place.

The teacher teaches and educates children of a wide variety of characters, inclinations, aspirations. Each student, along with the peculiarities of his age, has his own psychological characteristics in mental activity, in character and temperament. Knowing the characteristics inherent in a given age does not mean knowing each student individually. The uniqueness inherent in an individual human personality obliges teachers to study the individual characteristics of students and take them into account when solving specific issues of educational and educational work. If formalism and

pedantry prevail in pedagogical activity, then it becomes boring and monotonous; if the teacher does not adhere to ready-made stamps, but is looking for new methods and techniques of teaching and upbringing, then he feels a sense of moral satisfaction with his work.

It should be borne in mind that pedagogical science, organisation and methodology of educational work are constantly developing and improving, and if a teacher does not follow the development of pedagogical science, does not seek and apply new methods of educational work, he will quickly fall behind life and will not fulfil the tasks assigned to him.

Love for Children and Respect for Them

The experience of the best teachers shows that one of the main sources of their success in education and upbringing is love for children, respect for their personality. This love among the best teachers is usually combined with high demands on students.

The remarkable Soviet teacher A. S. Makarenko in his speech at the meeting of teachers of Leningrad and the Leningrad region said:

"My basic principle has always been: as much as possible demands on a person, but at the same time as much as possible respect for him"[1] . The best teachers of the Soviet school in their educational work follow this principle: they make students feasible requirements for them. These requirements express respect for students, faith in their strength, because the more we respect a person, the more we demand from him.

[1] A. Makarenko, Selected Pedagogical Works, Uchpedgiz, 1946, p. 160.

True love for children is alien to any false and artificial external affectionateness. Students usually have great respect for strict but fair teachers. Soft, undemanding teachers, despite their affability and affectionateness, very often do not enjoy authority.

Love and respect for children should be based on a deep knowledge of them, an understanding of their inner world and psychology. Therefore, in the educational work of a teacher, the ability to observe and understand students. Experienced and thoughtful teachers usually begin their work with a careful study of their class as a whole and each student individually.

Educating children in a team, the Soviet teacher combines teamwork with the classroom with a skilful individual approach to individual children, with a sensitive, attentive attitude to each student.

In one of his articles, A.M. Gorky wrote: "Children should be brought up by people who by nature gravitate to this business, which requires great love for children, great patience and sensitivity caution in dealing with future builders of the new world." A real teacher sincerely loves children and cares about the success and development of each of his students. Such a teacher has almost no drop-out of students, isolated cases of failure and discipline violations.

Teacher's Work with Students' Parents

In the conditions of the Soviet socialist system, the school and the family face the same tasks—the education of a generation capable of finally establishing communism. Therefore, the close relationship of the teacher with the parents of students is a prerequisite for the successful operation of the school. The best Soviet teachers are closely connected with the population. Communicating with the parents of students, they give them pedagogical advice,

promote pedagogical knowledge among them and provide a serious influence on the upbringing of children in the family.

In the Soviet country, respect and honour is usually enjoyed by the teacher who does not lock himself in the walls of the school, but goes to a working and collective family, performs his functions as an educator there, his duties as a Bolshevik agitator and propagandist, a conductor of socialist culture. The masses usually appreciate and love such teachers. Parents of students are interested in the success of their children and they turn to the teacher for advice, for help, if they encounter difficulties in raising their children.

Close communication of the teacher with the parents of students greatly facilitates his educational work.

Teacher's Participation in Public Life and Work

A Soviet teacher is not only an educator of the younger generation, but also an active, direct participant in the state and public life of the country. He serves his people not only by, that he teaches children, but also that he conducts extensive social, cultural and political work among the adult population.

The duty of a teacher—an advanced citizen of the country of socialism—requires high political activity and daily participation from him in public life and work.

Defining the tasks of a rural teacher, M. I. Kalinin pointed out: "It is necessary that the peasants have respect for the teacher, not only as a teacher, but also as a person. Keep in mind that this is a political issue. This—a deeply political issue. If you want the teaching to take the appropriate position, then draw a line so that the teacher is impartial, not afraid to express his point of view on a particular issue. When solving peasant issues, of course, the teacher can help,

since he is a citizen of this place, since he participates in all its economic and political life.

In the main way, a teacher can help a peasant in the cultural field."[1]

A village teacher is not only an adviser in collective farm affairs, but above all an organizer of cultural life, a conductor of socialist culture in a collective farm village. He must carry out cultural work among the adult population on a daily basis, explain to the workers the policy of the Bolshevik Party and the Soviet state and be an active fighter against the remnants of capitalism in the minds of people.

The social work of a teacher should not be considered in isolation from his educational work. A teacher who is not connected with the Soviet public, who does not actively participate in public work, will not be able to fulfil his honorary role.

The teacher's close connection with his people, active participation in public life and work will help raise the honorary title of teacher even higher and make his role in the training of active and conscious builders of communism even more significant.

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[1] M. I. Kalinin, On Communist education and training, ed. APN RSFSR, 1948, p. 159.

TASKS AND CONTENT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

Goals and Objectives of Primary Education

In the first four grades of secondary school, children are given preparation for their further education in the senior classes of a seven-year school. In primary school, a solid foundation is laid for the comprehensive development of children and the formation of their character in the spirit of communist morality.

Here children receive elementary knowledge about the structure of their native language, as well as reading and writing skills that have a huge educational value, meaning: mastering the Russian language gives students access to the treasury of science and introduces children to the cultural life of their people.

Learning to count and solve arithmetic problems in elementary school is the first step to children's knowledge of quantitative relations between the phenomena of the surrounding world.

In the first four grades of school, children receive concrete ideas and elementary concepts about the life of nature and the activities of its outstanding transformers (I. V. Michurin, T. D. Lysenko, etc.), initial knowledge about the past and present of their homeland, about the life and work of the great leaders of the working people—Lenin and Stalin.

Arming students with elementary knowledge about nature and human society, the school systematically teaches children to consider the studied phenomena not in isolation from each other, but in mutual connection with other phenomena, to find the nearest material causes phenomena, consider phenomena in their development. Children, studying objects and phenomena of the surrounding world

under the guidance of a teacher, are convinced of their materiality. Using concrete examples, children are shown the power of human knowledge, which defeats the elemental forces of nature and helps transform nature for the benefit of socialist society.

The tasks of initial training are not limited, however, to communicating a certain amount of knowledge. The school systematically develops curiosity of children, instils in them an interest and love for reading, develops their mental abilities.

Children learn to observe objects and phenomena of the surrounding world, to find similarities and differences in them, to group objects by characteristic features, to establish the simplest connections between phenomena, to draw conclusions and generalisations from observed facts, to make descriptions and give definitions.

Diverse mental work of younger schoolchildren promotes the development of their attention, imagination, logical thinking and memory.

In the process of learning, children acquire elementary concepts of communist morality. In an accessible form, the school introduces students to the advantages of the Soviet social and state system over the capitalist one, awakens and educates children to love their homeland, hatred of its enemies, and a sense of national pride for their great people.

From the first years of education, children are brought up with a sense of duty in teaching and work, children are taught to take care of public property, to protect nature. The school instils in children respect for the team, a sense of friendship, honesty and truthfulness, politeness and attention to people.

The school protects the health of children. It creates normal conditions for their physical development, strengthens their health, develops their physical strength, dexterity, endurance, general performance, hardens their body.

At the same time, the school equips children with basic sanitary and hygienic knowledge and skills and teaches them to regularly engage in gymnastic exercises. Children learn to sit, stand, walk, run, jump correctly, perform the simplest gymnastic exercises. In the process of games, physical exercises and sports activities, children acquire the ability to act in a team, help out friends, cultivate discipline, determination and courage.

In connection with the training, various kinds of practical classes are held at the school: children are accustomed to work that is feasible for them, acquire elementary knowledge and skills in working with the simplest materials—paper, cardboard, fabric, wood, learn to grow ivets and vegetables, take care of small pets.

Much attention in primary education is paid to the aesthetic education of children. The school awakens children's love for the beauties of their native nature, introduces them to the most outstanding and accessible their understanding of the works of Russian art.

Children acquire elementary knowledge and skills of drawing, singing, artistic reading and dramatization at school.

Curriculum of Grades I-IV

The stated tasks of primary education are carried out in teaching Russian, arithmetic, history, geography, natural science, singing and drawing. In addition to these subjects, the curriculum provides for special physical training lessons in each class.

History, geography and natural science as separate subjects of they are given only in the IV class. In the first three classes, only some initial information is reported on these subjects in Russian lessons in connection with reading relevant articles and stories.

In the first three classes, 2 hours a week are allocated for penmanship from the number of hours allocated to the Russian language. There are no separate penmanship lessons in the fourth grade, but classes on this subject are systematically conducted in grammar and spelling lessons.

The Russian language occupies a special position in the curriculum of the first four grades of the school—it is the central subject. In grades I—III, more than half of the school time is allocated to it. Russian language classes include: reading, grammar, spelling and speech development. When allocating study time to these sections of the Russian language program in the first three grades, it is necessary to take one lesson for reading every day. This requirement remains in force for the IV class, with the only difference that out of the total number of study hours in Russian, only three hours a week are allocated for reading lessons. But these hours are supplemented by systematic classroom textbook reading in history, geography and natural science classes.

Grammar, spelling and speech development are given all the rest of the time allotted according to the curriculum for teaching the Russian language, with the exception of grade I, where two hours a week are given to reading children's literature, on excursions and on observations of nature, etc. Reading, grammar and spelling, speech development in the learning process are closely linked, therefore, separate lessons for each of these sections are not provided by the plan, but it is advisable to allocate reading lessons, grammar and spelling lessons, and speech development lessons in the schedule.

In grades III and IV, special speech development lessons are used to exercise children in writing essays and expositions without interrupting, however, these classes are from grammar and spelling lessons. Thus, with the correct distribution of the study time provided for by the plan for teaching the Russian language, the teacher has the

opportunity to engage in reading, grammar, spelling and speech development with children every day.

Grid of study hours

	Number of hours								
	I class		II Class		III Class		IV Class		
Items	weekly	annual	weekly	annual	weekly	annual	weekly	annual	Total annual hours
Russian language	15	495	14	462	15	495	8	264	1716
Arithmetic	6	198	7	231	6	198	7	231	858
History	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	99	99
Geography	—	—	—	—	—	—	3(2)[1]	82	82
Natural science	—	—	—	—	—	—	2(3)	83	83
Painting	1	33	1	33	1	33	1	33	132
Singing	1	33	1	33	1	33	1	33	132
Physical training	1	33	1	33	2	66	2	66	198
Total	24	792	24	792	25	825	27	891	3300

The accumulation of students' initial ideas and concepts about the phenomena and objects of the world around them involves not only reading relevant articles and stories, but also direct observations of children, various kinds of excursions, subject lessons and practical work. The time for this kind of classes should be provided by the teacher and allocated from the total budget of study hours allocated for each class. In the first grade, these classes, as mentioned above, are held at specially designated hours. In grades II and III, for this purpose, it is also necessary to provide one or two hours a week from among the hours allocated to the Russian language. In the fourth grade, excursions and various kinds of practical classes are held during the hours allotted

[1] The number of hours in the second half of the year is indicated in brackets.

according to the curriculum for teaching natural science, geography and history (excursions are conducted mainly in the autumn and spring periods of the academic year).

From the above grid of the curriculum, it can be seen that in grades I and II, 4 lessons are held daily, in grade III, 5 lessons once a week (preferably on the second or third day of the week), in grade IV, children study 3 days a week for 4 hours and 3 days for 5 hours. It is necessary to alternate these days in the schedule.

Lesson duration—45 minutes; duration of changes—1st, 3rd and 4th—10 minutes, 2nd (large)—30 minutes.

In the first grade in the first half of the year, if conditions permit, it is advisable to reduce the duration of the lesson by 10 minutes, respectively, increasing the duration of the breaks. Under all conditions, the duration of the fourth lessons in the 1st grade should not exceed 35 minutes.

The teaching of all subjects specified in the curriculum is compulsory, no subject can be replaced by another. For each subject, the teacher is obliged to allocate the amount of time specified in the curriculum in his practical educational work, without decreasing or increasing it, strictly following the specified norms of weekly hours.

Russian Language

The main task of the initial teaching of the Russian language is to teach children conscious, correct, expressive and fluent reading, literate writing, equip them with the ability to express their thoughts orally and in writing and give them basic grammar information.

In the successful solution of this problem, the systematic work of the teacher on the development of the speech of children is of particular importance. The development of children's speech in primary education is the guiding

principle of language teaching. K.D. Ushinsky saw the primary goal of elementary school in the development of the "gift of speech" in children. Although children come to school with the ability to speak, their speech is not organised, not conscious and insufficient to become a means of learning and a means of broad communication. The task of the school is to develop the speech of children, to make it a conscious and obedient instrument of thought and communication.

All sections of teaching the Russian language in grades I-IV—vocabulary and grammar, reading and writing—should help children develop the skills of conscious and free expression of their thoughts by means of language.

As a result of initial language learning, children should realize the articulation of speech, its elements such as sound, word, sentence, study the connections of sentences into one coherent whole, master the concepts of sound, the meaning of a word and its parts, about parts of speech and their forms, about sentence, about the forms and composition of sentences, about coherent speech.

Language teaching in grades I-IV is structured concentrically. The basic concepts of sound, word, sentence and coherent speech are formed in children throughout all four years of study. At the same time, the skills of conscious reading and literate writing are being developed.

Consider the content of the main sections of the Russian language program.

In the first grade, children practically get acquainted with concepts from the field of phonetics: sound, letter, syllable; learn to divide speech into words, syllables and sounds; acquire the initial knowledge about vowels and consonants, about hard and soft consonants, about sibilants.

In grade II, concepts are given about voiced and voiceless consonants, about stress, about stressed and unstressed vowels. Children realise that in living speech, sounds are in combinations, that their quality also depends on their

position in the word: they change. Vowels change depending on whether they are in a stressed syllable or in an unstressed syllable, consonants—on what other sounds they are in the neighbourhood with (there is meaning voicing and stunning sounds), whether they are at the end of a word or in any other part of it. Children in grades I and II should learn that hard and soft consonants are distinguished in pronunciation, that their designation in writing has its own characteristics. Soft consonants are special sounds in Russian, which often determine the meaning of a word (glad—row, nose—carried, bow—hatch, etc.).

In grades III and IV, children's knowledge of sounds deepens; children, for example, learn that unstressed vowels are not only in the root, but also in endings, prefixes, and suffixes. Some elementary information on phonetics is closely related to orthoepic norms: literary pronunciation of vowels and consonants in different parts of the word and observance of literary stress. From the very first steps of teaching the Russian language, it is necessary to consistently and persistently achieve the correct pronunciation of words by children, without distorting and mixing sounds, without gross dialectal deviations. Exercises in the analysis of words, their decomposition into syllables and sounds and exercises in the synthesis of parts of a word, the formation of words from sounds and syllables serve this purpose.

By teaching the correct pronunciation of common two-syllable and three-syllable words, the teacher practically leads students in the first grade to distinguish stressed vowels.

In grade II, the topic of stress becomes especially important in connection with teaching the spelling of unstressed vowels in the root of a word; therefore, work on the literary pronunciation of commonly used words with unstressed vowels, voiced and voiceless, hard and soft consonants is even more intensified.

In grades III and IV, the development of literary pronunciation skills connects with the study of parts of speech. Children learn the correct pronunciation of the endings of nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs.

The concepts of the word are also consistently formed in children. The word is ambiguous, its meanings are learned in coherent speech. With all the variety of meanings, a word always has one basic meaning, the rest are considered figurative. The teacher draws the attention of children to this phenomenon of language and, analysing living speech with them, teaches them to single out words that are close and opposite in meaning and words that are more general in meaning and less general.

In the first grade, children are given initial concepts about the subject and the words denoting objects. Children practically master the ability to distinguish the words to which the questions are asked who? or what? At this stage of learning, children acquire the elementary ability to relate words to one or another group of word-concepts that have a more general meaning: a ball, a doll—toys; coat, shirt—clothes, etc. This skill develops in the future, throughout all four classes, gradually becoming more and more complex and deepening.

In grade II, children practically get to know the simplest cases, ambiguity of the word (children are walking, trams are running, hours are running). They learn to consciously use a word, to select another word of a similar or opposite meaning to a given word in coherent speech.

Work on the ambiguity of a word using more complex examples continues in III and IV classes.

In grade III, students acquire the ability to distinguish between words in direct and figurative meanings, they practice distinguishing between words of similar and opposite meanings, not only denoting objects, but also signs and actions, and the teacher must ensure that children are able to use such words in their own speech. ...

In the IV grade, the figurative meaning of the word is considered already as a means of figurative speech (the simplest cases). Here it is important to achieve the ability not only to find a figurative word or expression in the text, not only to understand it, but also to use it in your speech. In the fourth grade, the ability to distinguish between words similar in meaning (synonyms) develops, to choose the most appropriate words to express thoughts and feelings.

As you know, a word is not only a lexical (vocabulary) phenomenon, but also a grammatical one. The word breaks down into constituent meaningful elements: root, prefix, suffix, ending. The word is any part of speech, it is somehow associated with other words in the sentence. The word is a member of the sentence. This grammatical information about the word is communicated to children in an elementary form already in the second grade.

In grade II, children distinguish by questions and meanings not only words denoting objects, but also words denoting signs and actions. Children learn to distinguish and change the names of objects according to the number of them (one object—many objects). In the second grade, the concept of the root is first given. Children practically master this concept, practicing in the selection of the root in words and in the selection of single-root words starting with the root (water, water, water), and with prefixes (leave, come, come in), in the selection of words with different roots, but with the same prefix. The concept of a prefix and a preposition is also clarified, skills are developed to highlight a preposition, to highlight a prefix in a word.

Information about the composition of the word (about the root and the prefix) is necessary for children to master the spelling of unstressed vowels in the roots of words and the continuous spelling of prefixes. This information also helps to clarify the understanding of the meaning of the word. Children will learn that not only words in general are

significant, but that each part of the word contributes to its overall meaning.

The initial knowledge about the morphological composition of the word, acquired by children in grade II, expands and deepens in the senior grades of school.

In grade III, children are given the concept of the base and ending, the suffix, the formation of words with the help of suffixes and prefixes, single-root words with a change in consonants in the root (snow—snowball, hand—pen), about the formation of words by adding bases with the help of a connecting vowel e and o (pedestrian, steam locomotive)—all this is an expansion and deepening of the initial concepts received by children in the I class. Together with this knowledge, children acquire the ability to find an ending, a root, a prefix, a suffix in a word, pick up one-root words, complicated by a change in sounds, suffixes of the simplest type, prefixes, form words using the named means.

In the IV grade, an even larger circle of words with alternating consonants is subjected to morphological analysis (cry—scream, friend—friendship, dry—land, write—write). Children also acquire the ability to form other parts of speech from one part of speech. Both knowledge and skills of this kind are of great importance for the development of spelling skills in the field of spelling unstressed vowels in the root, which continue to be studied up to grade IV inclusive.

In grades III and IV, children learn about the noun, adjective, numeral, verb and other parts of speech. This knowledge is based on the initial concepts of the subject, feature and action, received by children in the lower grades of school.

Children learn about a noun that it denotes the name of an object, that the concept of an object includes things, people, animals, phenomena of nature and society, abstract concepts, that nouns can denote animate and inanimate objects, can be proper and common nouns, that nouns change in cases, numbers, have a certain gender; children

get acquainted with the types of declension (1st, 2nd, 3rd), with prepositions for nouns, with the rules for spelling case endings. However, all this is not only knowledge, but also skills: the ability to parse a noun by gender, case and number, the ability to inflect and use nouns of all three declensions in the correct form, the ability to form nouns with certain suffixes.

Children also learn the adjective from the side of meaning and form. They must learn that an adjective is the name of a feature of an object, that it changes in gender, number and case, depending on the noun in the sentence; should be able to inflect and form adjectives by means of certain suffixes, finding out their meaning. On the basis of knowledge about this part of speech, the teacher develops in children the skills of correct writing of case and generic endings.

Children learn about numerals that they are subdivided into quantitative and ordinal, that both are inclined.

From pronouns, children learn personal ones and practically get acquainted with interrogative pronouns who, what, which. Children learn the declensions of these parts of speech and their spelling.

Students gain the following knowledge about the verb: the verb and its meaning; Na-Xia verbs, persons and numbers of the verb, personal endings, tenses of the verb: present, past, future simple and complex; 1st and 2nd conjugations, indefinite form, imperative form, the role of the verb in the sentence. On the basis of knowledge, the ability to parse and change verbs by person, number, tenses is developed, as well as the skill to write correctly personal endings, indefinite and imperative forms of the verb, to distinguish the 1st and 2nd conjugations by comparing the forms—out, —yut—e; at, —at—and; the ability to form verbs with —sy from verbs without —y, to form an indefinite and imperative form of a verb from a personal form.

In the IV grade adverbs, union are taught. Children are given concepts about the meaning of an adverb (time, place, mode of action), its immutability, formation from adjectives by means of the suffix —o (fast, good), fluent spelling of some of the most common adverbs. Children master the ability to distinguish an adverb from other parts of speech, to form adverbs to write adverbs of the above categories.

Here, the role of the union for combining words and sentences is clarified. The teacher achieves the ability to distinguish a union from a preposition, to combine homogeneous words and sentences with a union.

The role of the preposition is clarified in connection with the case and ending when passing the noun back in grade III. The values of the place and time are taken from the values of the preposition. Learning prepositions, kids acquire the ability to distinguish them from prefixes, use the necessary preposition with case in coherent speech, determine the case with a preposition, write prepositions separately from the studied parts of speech.

Changes in words in the study of parts of speech are considered in connection with the analysis of the combination of words in a sentence. However, one should not conclude from this that morphology occupies a subordinate position in relation to syntax: morphology, along with syntax, is the most important section of grammar.

In the content of language teaching in primary school, work on the proposal is of great importance. The concept of a proposal in general form is given to children already at the beginning of their education.

In the lower grades, children are introduced to narrative, interrogative and exclamation sentences. Practically mastering them, children understand the role of the sentence for expressing thoughts, the intonation side of the sentence: raising, lowering the voice, pause.

The connection of words in a sentence and the grammatical change of words to express this connection are

the subject of study, starting from the lower grades. In primary classes, it is not intended to introduce children with the types of phrases and the means of expressing the connection of the members of phrases (coordination, management, adjunction, composition), however, the connection between words is studied, attention is drawn to the role of the ending for coherent speech, to changing words in order to create coherence of speech, to declension and conjugation and their role in coherent speech.

In addition to distinguishing between narrative, interrogative and exclamation sentences, elementary school students should be able to distinguish between non-common and common, simple sentences and complex. The program does not aim to ensure that children have an idea of different types of simple and complex sentences: impersonal, vaguely personal, difficult-composed, difficult-subordinated-but it is necessary to achieve the conscious ability of children to build common personal sentences and complex sentences— elementary type (two sentences connected by some conjunctions and without conjunctions). In terms of frequency of use, simple personal sentences are the most common both in the language of adults and in the language of children, which is why they are the main subject of syntactic classes in elementary school. Children get acquainted with a complex sentence in the IV grade.

The study of a complex sentence enriches the speech of children. It develops and improves their initial skills in the practical use of complex sentences in order to achieve greater completeness and depth of oral and especially written speech.

In primary classes, both the main and secondary members of the sentence should be studied. The need to go through the topic of the main members of the proposal hardly needs justification at the moment. The question of the secondary members of the proposal is controversial. However, in order to develop active thought and speech of

children, it is necessary to pay attention to the meaning of the secondary members of the sentence. It is important that students understand that the sentence members express the meanings of: place, time, mode of action, etc.

According to the years of study, syntactic information and skills are distributed in this way. Even in the letter period, children practically work on a sentence, acquiring the ability to highlight a sentence in speech, answer about whom or what is said, make a proposal on the topic given by the teacher. During the same period, children get an idea of the question-sentence, the answer-sentence, the period, the question mark and exclamation marks. Children develop the ability to answer a question with a complete sentence, distinguish sentences by intonation, pronounce them with the correct intonation ("answer", "ask").

In the post-letter period, attention is drawn to the connection of words in a sentence depending on the question, in particular, to the connection of words denoting signs of action with words denoting the subject; the ability to establish this connection between words in a sentence, the ability to notice gross errors in the connection of words is developed. Children compose narrative, exclamation and interrogative suggestions in connection with reading, observations on nature, conversations on pictures, conversations on topics close to them. Children acquire the ability to answer a question (orally and in writing) fully, using the text of the question in the answer.

The concept of what a sentence is develops in subsequent classes. In the second grade, this concept becomes more generalized and is clothed in grammatical terminology; here a sentence is defined as a thought expressed in words, terms are introduced: narrative sentences, exclamation sentences, interrogative sentences. Children get the concept of the subject, predicate, their relationship, as well as the connection of other words in the sentence with the subject and predicate. On the basis of

these concepts, the ability to compose is developed narrative, exclamation, interrogative sentences of three to five words on the topic given by the teacher, the ability to find the subject and predicate in the sentence, write down the sentence after parsing with the teacher.

In the third grade, children's knowledge of syntax is further expanded and deepened. Terms are introduced: non-common and common sentences, main and secondary members of a sentence; ways of communication between words in a sentence are considered: endings, prepositions, conjunctions (a, and, but), sentences with homogeneous members (names of objects and actions). Children should be able to find a connection between words in a simple sentence, find the main and secondary members of a sentence, make simple sentences with the main and secondary members.

In the IV class, the concept of secondary members of the sentence is clarified, the terms are introduced: definition, addition, circumstance; concepts are added: appeal (at the beginning of the sentence), a complex sentence consisting of two sentences connected without unions and with unions, direct speech after the words of the author. At the same time there is a development of the ability to recognize relevant cases in texts, the development of the ability to construct sentences orally and in writing and to put punctuation marks: a comma after the address; a comma between two sentences that make up one complex; a colon before direct speech.

Thus, syntactic representations and concepts of students are gradually developing and on the basis of them, practical skills are developed to build appropriate types of sentences orally and in writing, to put punctuation marks in the simplest cases.

The main task of teaching coherent speech is to teach children to combine their individual thoughts into a more complex whole, into a story based on its theme. This task is

solved in elementary grades purely practically, through systematic exercises in oral and written speech. In the process of mastering the skill of coherent speech, children acquire some information about the topic, about the connection between thoughts, about the main and secondary thoughts, about the plan, about the story, description, reasoning. In order to teach children to write expositions and essays, it is necessary, firstly, to teach them each type of composition in a dissected way (story, description, reasoning, etc.); secondly, to teach them to divide an essay into its elements; thirdly, to teach them to arrange thoughts according to the plan. The choice of types of essay is determined by practical considerations-during primary school, a child should learn to tell, describe well-known simple objects and phenomena, be able to coherently express their thoughts, explain and defend them.

All these skills develop gradually from class to class. In the pre-letter and letter periods, children make up with the help of a teacher verbally, non-short stories from three-four sentences for a series of pictures or one story picture on topics from your life.

At the end of the letter period, children learn to write down these stories.

During the same period, children learn to listen to the teacher's story, to understand its and transmit its content on issues.

In the post-book period, children get acquainted with the order of presentation of thoughts. In the second half of the year, they more independently compose oral stories of the same type as in the primer period. They should be able to talk about their observations of nature; write a story of three or four sentences on questions, orally compiled with the teacher; be able to listen to the teacher's story and convey it as a whole after preliminary preparation with the teacher.

In class II, an elementary concept of a plan is introduced as a means of correct and consistent presentation of

thoughts. There are students here they acquire the ability to tell according to the plan drawn up with the teacher about what they have experienced, seen, heard, talk about the work done in the classroom and at home, about the observations made. At the same time, children are required to be able to write down the compiled with the teacher the plan of the story and write a small (four hundred sentences) story with preliminary oral preparation according to the finished plan.

In grade III, children learn to make their own story plan (oral and written) with the preliminary preparation of the material for the story, orally and in writing, they compose stories based on plot pictures, personal observations and memories, according to an independent plan drawn up after analysing the material with the teacher. Children should be able to compose an oral and written story with elements of description with the help of a teacher; verbally describe a subject given in kind or in an image, according to a plan drawn up with the teacher; to tell about the work done; to compose a letter to a friend; to convey the teacher's story.

In grade IV, children should be able to independently draw up a simple story plan; using the plan, tell orally and in writing from a picture, from personal observations and memories; compose oral and written stories with elements of description, describe objects, experiences in class, compose simple instructions for any action (how to cook soup, how to plant potatoes, etc.). Pupils of the 4th grade are required to be able to clearly express and prove their idea, write a note in a wall newspaper, write a simple business paper: a receipt, statement, power of attorney, announcement; be able to verbally and in writing, in detail and concisely convey the story read by the teacher.

So gradually, from less independent works to more independent ones, children are developing the ability to express their thoughts orally and in writing.

The development of coherent speech is inseparable from the formation of a skill in children conscious reading. This skill develops, as well as coherent speech, gradually. It is impossible to immediately teach children to read consciously, correctly, smoothly and expressively any text. The teacher achieves this gradually.

During the letter period, children read monosyllabic, two-syllable and three-syllable words, words with syllables straight, reverse, closed, words with a concatenation of consonants at the end, beginning and middle of the word, prepositions together with the following word. By the end of this period, children they master the skill of correctly and smoothly reading and understanding non-hearing light texts.

During the same period, children acquire the ability to answer questions to what they read, to find in the text, according to the teacher's instructions, suggestions for one or another topic, words and expressions, explain them, memorize poems from the words of the teacher, and then from the book, transmit the content of what was read after parsing with the teacher.

At the same time, children acquire the ability to distinguish by the cover the primer from the task book, find the page by the picture, distinguish the top, the middle and bottom of the page, find the material for writing in the primer.

In the post-book period of study, the initial skills of conscious, correct, smooth and unhurried reading continue to develop. Children read in whole words texts that are understandable and consist of short and simple sentences with simple two-syllable and three-syllable words (children use syllabic reading only when parsing more difficult words). At the same time, the skill of expressive reading of the text read and parsed with the teacher is developed: compliance with intonation, dots, question marks and exclamation marks in accordance with the content readable. The matter, however, is not limited only to the development of the skill

of correct reading and conscious perception of the text: students are required to be able to consistently and correctly retell the text after parsing it with the teacher. In the first grade, children should be able to name the characters of the story and be able to read the story by roles after parsing with the teacher. If children in the previous period memorized a poem from the teacher's voice, now they memorize it from the book after a conversation with the teacher.

In addition, the development of skills to use the book continues: the ability to explain the title of what is being read, name your study books by the titles on the cover and by the author, find the page by numbering, highlight the dialogue (conversation) in the text in appearance, in the textbook to find exercises, words for reference, rules; read and understand the tasks.

Already during this period, children begin to develop the ability to independently read light children's books and the ability to briefly convey their contents.

In grade II, the skills and abilities laid down in grade I are developed in the field of reading. The skill of conscious, correct, smooth, with observance of intonation, pauses and logical stress, reading short stories, poems, fables (after analysis with the teacher) is developed. At the same time, the skills are being developed: a) to read small texts to yourself with the independent fulfilment of the teacher's tasks -to answer questions about the content, to find words and expressions reflecting this or that moment of the story, this or that thought, to name the main actors, to come up with pictures reflecting the main moments of the story, etc.; b) divide into parts (under the guidance of a teacher) a small story, independently title each part; c) retell what you read as a whole or selectively.

Children's skills in using the book are expanding. A student of the II grade should be able to name the author, title, convey the contents of the book read in the order of extracurricular reading, use the table of contents in the book

for reading, in the textbook on the Russian language, find the title of the story on the teacher's assignment.

In the third grade, the development of conscious, correct, smooth, fluent reading of any available text. Children should already independently read the texts in compliance with pauses, intonations and logical accents in accordance with the meaning of what is being read. From a student of Class III requires the ability to read to yourself with a subsequent retelling after a single reading, selectively retell in detail or briefly read aloud or to yourself.

In preparation for drawing up a plan, grade III students develop the ability to find the most significant passages in the text, which reflect the main idea, independently divide into parts short stories and caption each part.

Students acquire the ability to use footnotes and a subscript dictionary in a book, to determine the contents of a book for extracurricular reading by the picture on the cover, by the illustrations inside the book, by the titles and table of contents.

A student of the IV class can be required to read fluently an unfamiliar but accessible text, expressive reading with the necessary pace, pauses, intonation, conveying semantic shades and emotional colouring of the text being read, In the IV class children are already able to determine the main idea of what they read, independently compose the plan of the stories and articles to be read, to give a concise and detailed retelling of what was read, to develop individual episodes, to supplement them, to find figurative words in what was read and to distinguish artistic speech from the speech of popular science articles.

Writing and spelling skills, as well as other skills, develop gradually. The teacher promotes their development by systematic exercises of children. At the same time, the teacher should always keep in mind the main task: teaching writing and spelling, to develop children's ability to express their thoughts clearly and accurately. Written speech, as

well as oral, serves the purposes of communication. The more correctly and clearly the student writes, the better he knows this means of communication.

In the field of spelling, during the letter period of study, children master the separate spelling of significant words in a sentence. They must learn to write without skipping, rearranging and replacing letters in words that they have already learned to read, copy and write dictation words in which the spelling does not differ from pronunciation, write a capital letter at the beginning of a sentence after a period, a capital letter in people's names, put a period at the end of a sentence.

In the post—letter period, these writing skills are further developed their development (children generally master the technique of writing). By the end of the year, children should be able to write capital letters not only in names, but also in the surnames of people and in the nicknames of animals, be able to transfer words by syllables, use a period when writing.

In grade II, writing skills are improved. Children learn to copy whole words and short sentences, to write sentences of four or five words under dictation, to write individual phrases from memory.

Unstressed vowels in the roots of two—syllable and three—syllable words without take a big place in spelling teaching in grade II prefixes and with the simplest prefixes, as well as the spelling of deaf and voiced consonants at the end and middle of the word. In this class, children are first introduced to separate writing prepositions and continuous spelling consoles (in the simplest cases), learn about dividing $ and s, the year-learn spelling some of the words (the list) with unverifiable unstressed vowels, and words with doubled consonants, silent consonants, learn to use a comma before and, but and before.

In the third grade, students acquire the skill of copying text in whole combinations of words, to write dictation

sentences of five to six words after a single reading, to write from memory short excerpts of two or three sentences, as well as memorized non-verbose poems.

In this class, work continues on the spelling of unstressed vowels in the roots of words, as well as the spelling of unstressed vowels in prefixes and suffixes (according to the list). The development of the spelling skill of voiced and deaf consonants continues and the law is being passed- writing them in prefixes. In addition, in the third grade, children study the following spelling topics: spelling of connecting vowels about i.e. in compound words, the combined spelling of prefixes and separate spelling of prepositions, the particle not before verbs, the capital letter in proper names. The central theme of spelling in grade III is the spelling of unstressed case endings of nouns in the singular and plural (spelling of case endings of nouns in ai, iya, ie is studied in grade IV). In the third grade, the spelling of feminine nouns on b (door, mouse) is learned. In connection with the passage of adjectives, the spelling of case and generic endings of adjectives is assimilated. In connection with the passage of nouns and adjectives, the spelling of some suffixes is assimilated.

In the third grade, in addition, verb spelling skills are given, and reflexive verbs (with a particle) are not taken for training: sh, —t, —T.

The following new topics are covered in the spelling class: prefixes without, who, bottom, times, quantitative numerals, case endings of personal, interrogative and demonstrative pronouns, prepositions before pronouns, personal endings of verbs without “xia and with xia, 1st and 2nd conjugations (according to the 3rd person and according to the list), indefinite verb form in contrast to the 3rd person: verbs, imperative verb form without and with, particle not with verbs, adverbs on o with unstressed endings and some other adverbs (according to the list).

In connection with the passage of syntax in the upper grades of elementary school, children learn the statement of the comma and colon in the simplest cases.

Dividing the content of teaching Russian in primary school into sections, however, it is not necessary to separate these sections from each other. In the practical work of a teacher throughout the entire course of primary Russian language training, speech development, writing, grammar and reading should be closely intertwined with each other.

It should not be forgotten that the various sides of the language are in organic connection with each other. Spelling reflects the phonetic, morphological and syntactic structure of our language, and it cannot be learned without working on coherent speech, on presentation, composition.

Reading is closely connected with the development of speech, with the ability to state what you have read. The construction of coherent speech involves the construction of sentences and the choice of a word; the word does not live outside the sentence in which it acquires its meaning and form. The sounds of speech interest us insofar as they are in the word, contribute to the distinction of its meaning and help to understand the structure of the word and its designation on the letter.

Arithmetic

The main task of primary arithmetic training is to teach children to number and solve problems within the limits available for a given age.

The numeration section includes the concept of integers and actions on them, as well as the initial concepts of fractions and basic actions on them. Integers are the main link in the content of the course of elementary arithmetic. The field of numbers studied in elementary grades is limited

to the first four classes—the classes of units, thousands, millions and billions.

The study of numbers in the lower grades begins with the formation of the concept of each number of the first ten in children. In grades I and II, children also form concepts about the decimal composition of the numbers of the second ten and the first hundred.

At the end of the second year of study, children study the formation, composition and composition of numbers up to 1000; in this centre, when writing numbers, children get the concept of the local principle in the decimal system.

In the third grade, the area of studied numbers expands to the class of millions inclusive; here children get the concept of digits and classes of numbers. And finally, in the fourth grade, another class of billions is added to the studied one; children learn the relations between bit units and class units, the composition of numbers from bits and classes, their names and sequence, the written numbering of numbers of any values within the specified limit.

The study of numbering takes place in close connection with the development of the concept of arithmetic operations and their basic properties. Teaching children to correctly, confidently and consciously perform 4 arithmetic operations on numbers orally and in writing is one of the main tasks of primary education. The peculiarity of the primary school's work in the field of studying arithmetic operations is that students receive initial concepts about the laws of actions based on mastering computational techniques. In each arithmetic operation, these concepts develop in a strictly defined order.

The initial concept of addition arises in children from counting, by counting by one. As the numbers increase, the method of counting by one gives way to another method: children combine the units of the added number into groups that count to this number one by one.

Already within the first ten children practically master the method of rearrangement. terms, replacing the addition of a larger number to a smaller one by an easier and faster way of adding a smaller number to a larger one.

So, gradually I and II classes in the study of both the first and second dozen, and the first hundred in oral, children learn almost computing techniques adding that the expression of the commutative and associative laws of addition: “when the rearrangement of terms, the sum does not change”; “instead of to the number to add sum of numbers, these numbers can be added one after another.”

On the basis of these laws, in grade III, students learn the written method of adding multi-digit numbers, where the addition of multi-digit numbers leads to the addition of their digit units.

From addition arises the concept of multiplication. Already in the limit of the second ten, the addition of equal terms is replaced by multiplication.

The initial method of multiplication is repeated addition. But as the multiplicative and multiplier increase in the second class, repeated addition gives way to abbreviated techniques. So, already in tabular multiplication, the distributive law of multiplication is applied (8X7=(8X5)+(8X2)=56). But the most constant and regular application, this law gets in extra - tabular multiplication a two-digit number by a single digit and a single-digit number by a two-digit (28 X 3= (20X3)+(8 X 3) = 84).

When studying the multiplication table, the permutation of multipliers is widely used. The displacement property of the product is also used in cases of multiplication of a single-digit number by a two-digit one.

Finally, when multiplying a single digit number by round tens, students are introduced to a computational technique based on the use of the combinative property of multiplication (2X40=2X4X X 10=80).

The concept of subtraction is also initially formed from a practical technique - counting by one, based on knowledge of counting. The units being counted are then combined into groups. In the second ten and further, when studying hundreds, the counting technique is replaced by a bit-by-bit subtraction: 68—23=(60+8)—(20+3)= (60—20)+(8—3) =40+5=45, or 82—35=82—(30+5)=82-30-5=52—5=47.

In class III, the method of bitwise subtraction extends to the written subtraction of multi-digit numbers.

Already in the first grade, children are brought to understand the connection between subtraction and addition and are taught to use addition when subtracting (from 15-7= 8, since 7-8=15). In subsequent grades, the understanding of the relationship between subtraction and addition deepens, and by the fifth grade, children have a distinct concept of subtraction as an action that is the opposite of addition.

The concept of division, as the most complex action, develops slowly and gradually. In the first grade, the concept of division is formed in children numbers into equal parts. The initial computational method of doing is the method of distributing items one by one. Following this, the relationship between division into equal parts and multiplication is revealed, and this relationship is used to find the quotient ("12 divided into 3 equal parts, it will be 4, because if you take 4 3 times, you get 12").

In grade II, children acquire the concept of division by content.

In this period of training, both types of division appear in consciousness of children as special actions. Each type of division has its own terminology here: division by content- 24 divided by 6, will be 4 (times); division into parts—24 divided into 6 equal parts, will get 4 (in each part).

The process of generalising these concepts is slow and more or less formalized at the end of the second year of study. Work on the generalisation of these two types of division continues in high school.

Studying extra-tabular division in the limit of 100 in grade II, children in some cases divide the divisible into terms (72:4=(40:4)++(32:4)=10+8=18).

In class III, this technique is joined by another technique of successive division into divisor multipliers (for example, 180:30=180:3:10).

Thus, children practically approach the realisation of the properties of division: in order to divide the sum of numbers by a given number, you can divide each term and add the resulting quotients; in order to divide a number by the product of two numbers, you can divide this number by the first factor, then divide the resulting quotient by the second factor.

In the third grade, on the basis of these properties and the definition of division as the reverse of multiplication, students learn the mechanism of written division of multi-digit numbers.

In the fourth grade, the skills of written calculations are strengthened and expanded in connection with the study of actions on numbers of any magnitude.

The formation of concepts about arithmetic operations ends with the study of the simplest cases of changes in the results of actions depending on changes in data.

Along with the teaching of numeracy and in close connection with it, much attention is paid to learning how to solve problems in primary schools.

Solving problems, children get acquainted with quantitative relations and ways of changing quantities and numbers, get an elementary idea of the functional relationship between quantities, which allows calculating the value of one of the quantities from the data values of the other two quantities.

Solving problems promotes the development of logical thinking of children and at the same time equips them with the ability to solve practical life issues that require calculations and calculations. Performing arithmetic

operations when solving problems helps to consolidate computational skills.

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The formation of concepts about arithmetic operations ends with the study of the simplest cases of changes in the results of actions depending on changes in data.

Along with teaching numeracy and in close connection with it, much attention is paid in primary school to learning how to solve problems.

Solving problems, children get acquainted with quantitative ratios and by means of changing quantities and numbers, an elementary idea of the functional relationship between the quantities is obtained, which allows calculating the value of one of the quantities from the data values of the other two quantities.

Solving problems promotes the development of logical thinking of children and at the same time equips them with the ability to solve practical life issues that require calculations and calculations.

Performing arithmetic operations when solving problems helps to consolidate computational skills.

Of the quantitative relations studied in the course of elementary practical arithmetic, according to the degree of importance and repeatability in life, the first place is occupied by those relations that exist between the whole and its parts. We have to deal with these ratios at every step. They differ in varying degrees of complexity—from very simple and obvious to very complex. With the simplest ratios children meet when it is required to find this whole according to the given parts of some whole, or when it is required for a given one part of the whole, the numerical value of which is known, to find this whole, or when the whole is divided into a given number of equal parts. In a more complex form, this relation appears in cases where the

whole is required to find its part with a given ratio of this part to the whole and when the whole has to be divided into parts in proportion to the given numbers.

Practical and scientific significance of the ability to understand this issue obviously and indisputably. Such a skill is given by solving problems in which these relations are concretized on various quantities.

The second thing that we constantly have to face in life is the change of quantities (numbers) and the definition of the relationship between them.

Such cases should include—an increase and decrease in values (numbers) by addition and subtraction; increase and decrease of quantities by multiplication and division; difference comparison of two values of a quantity; multiple comparison of two values of a quantity; comparison of difference and multiple comparison and their joint application.

In elementary form, children learn all these concepts in the first two grades of elementary school by solving simple tasks—tasks in one action. On these tasks, students gradually master the ability to use arithmetic operations, correctly choose and perform the necessary action in one case or another.

The main thing is that when solving these problems, children create and consolidate clear ideas about the nature of changes in the values and the ratio of the whole and its parts.

Quantitative relationships are learned by students with varying ease. Children encounter some of them early in practical life; they get acquainted with others only during school education. For example, the addition of two numbers, and the inverse operation, as well as the division of a value into equal parts, are familiar to children from the experience of their preschool life. But with the finding of a part from the whole according to a given ratio of this part to the whole, children usually meet for the first time only at school.

Therefore, some tasks require more effort of thought and creative imagination from children, while others require less. In accordance with this, problems on the relation between the whole and its parts are arranged in the following system:

In class I, the following tasks are solved: to find the sum (whole) according to its given parts (terms); to find the reduced (whole) by its given parts (remainder and subtracted); to find the remainder (part) by the given sum (whole) and one of the summands (part); to find the product (whole) made up of equal parts; to find one of the equal parts by dividing the whole into equal parts.

In class II, the skills of solving these types of simple problems are fixed on solving composite problems and, in addition, the tasks of finding the subtractible (part) for this reduced (whole) and remainder (part) are solved; finding one part of the whole for this whole and the relation of the desired part to it.

In class III, problems with a much more complicated ratio of the whole and its parts are solved, namely: proportional division problems and unequal division problems, when: a) the difference of parts is given and 6) a multiple ratio of parts is given.

And finally, in the fourth grade, one of the most difficult simple tasks for children in the course of elementary arithmetic is solved—the task of finding the whole for a given part of it and the ratio of this part to the whole.

The tasks by which the ways of changing the values are found out are arranged in the following order: tasks for increasing and decreasing the number by several units; tasks for difference comparison of two numbers; tasks for increasing and decreasing the number several times; tasks for multiple comparison of two numbers.

The first type of these tasks is included in the course of class I, the rest—in class II, followed by fixing them in classes III and IV.

Tasks for the ratio of parts and the whole, as well as for changing the values of the groups are concentrated in the lower grades around the study of four arithmetic operations. The sequence of these actions entirely determines the system of the arrangement of tasks in classes I and II. In the senior classes, the system in the arrangement of tasks depends not only on the order of arithmetic operations, but also on the complexity of the solution methods, on the complexity of the reasoning that accompanies the solution of the problem.

The second goal of solving problems is to familiarize children with the elementary functional dependencies of quantities.

First, children get acquainted with the proportional dependence of quantities. For this purpose, tasks with such proportional values are selected, which are of the most important practical importance and which are partly familiar to children from their life experience. These include: price, quantity, cost; time, speed, path; labour productivity per unit of time, time, total labour productivity; weight unit, number of weight units, total weight; yield per unit area, area, total yield.

The patterns discovered and studied on these values can be easily transferred to other life phenomena, with other values.

For the first time, the child gets a fairly clear representation of the proportional dependence of the quantities on solving problems by reducing them to one, which is included in the Class II programme. This representation expands when solving proportional division problems in class III. The proportional dependence of the quantities in the problems of a simple triple rule, solved by the method of relations, and, finally, the formation of specific ideas about the proportional dependence of quantities contribute to the problems of a complex triple rule solved in class IV.

In problems of this type, the student encounters the dependence of this value not on one, but on two other values. Here there is a joint consideration of several proportional quantities.

In classes I-IV, problems with directed quantities are solved in elementary form. Of these, special attention should be paid to the tasks of oncoming traffic and movement in one direction, when one body catches up with another.

Finally, among the arithmetic problems there are also such problems when with the help of which children are brought to understand the inverse relations and the measurement of the whole in its parts. This is done in tasks known as pool tasks, collaboration tasks, and others.

Solving problems, as mentioned above, contributes to the development of logical thinking in children. Each task solved by children forces them to think, to make judgments, to make conclusions based on their conclusions.

Starting from the first grade, students use analysis and synthesis in their simplest form. In subsequent classes, with the introduction of more complex tasks, especially typical tasks, the form of the analytical-synthetic thinking process becomes more complicated. Children are faced with new schemes of reasoning, with new types of conclusions, which they gradually master. They develop the ability not to lose the thread in reasoning, consisting of a long chain of conclusions, the need for justification and proof of their judgments, in establishing causal relationships between the quantities given in the problem. This is especially facilitated by such tasks in which children are forced to make certain assumptions and trace what consequences they lead to, compare the resulting consequence with the condition of the problem and draw conclusions based on the comparison. In some problems, the comparison of numerical data alone leads children to detect discrepancies in values and to ask why such a discrepancy occurred, why one value is greater or less than another, why it is this value that hurts and is so

much more. The problem analysis begins with the question “why?”. The solution of such problems begins in grade III and continues in grade IV. These include tasks:

1) to find an unknown for a given difference of two values of a quantity (class III);

2) solved by eliminating one of the quantities (Class IV);

3) to find the unknown by the difference, which in turn is the desired one (IV class);

4) solved by replacing one value with another (Class IV).

This also includes the tasks of finding two numbers by their sum and differences, by their sum and multiple ratio.

Solving the problem requires a joint activity of thinking and imagination. In order to solve the problem, it is necessary to visualize with full clarity the situation that is given in the condition of the problem. This is a reproducing (reproducing) imagination.

But to solve the problem, you need activity and creative imagination.

By the power of his thinking and creative imagination, the child decomposes an integral task into its constituent elements, into separate questions, so that then, combining the data in the task, he can approach the solution of its main question.

This applies to every task. But among the tasks there are also those whose solution requires a particularly active, especially intense activity of the imagination. This includes the tasks mentioned above to find the unknown by the difference, which in turn is the desired value (“Schoolchildren went on an excursion. If they are put on 3 buses, then 33 people remain without seats. If you put them in 4 buses, then there will be 15 empty seats. How many students went on an excursion?”), tasks for moving bodies up and down the river, and many others.

It is obvious that these and similar tasks cannot be solved unless the situations that are given in them are presented in all concreteness.

Solving problems is also of great practical importance. By solving problems, children learn to navigate practical issues related to calculations and calculations, to understand various life situations in which a number and a measure are involved.

Many of the tasks mentioned above are directly and most directly related to the requirements and demands of practical life. Learning to solve them, children are armed with valuable skills and practical skills. When students at a given price and when they calculate the cost of something, they acquire a skill that will be useful to them in the store, in the market, and wherever they can meet with buying and selling. When students of a rural school calculate the total harvest by the yield per unit area and by this area, they are preparing for future practical activities on the collective farm.

However, such tasks are not enough to prepare children for practical activities, they give children everything ready: the life situation, numerical data, and the nature of the relationship between the values given in the task. Students solve “stylized” tasks. Meanwhile, life often poses tasks in the form of only one question, without specifying which quantities are involved in solving this question, what is the numerical value of these quantities. For example, “How many hundredweight of hay will a collective farm need for the winter to feed livestock?” Or: “How much do textbooks and writing materials cost for a Grade II student?”

To solve the first problem, you need to know: the number of livestock, the ration rate (feed dacha), the number of days or months in winter. Only if such data is available, the problem can be solved. The ability to understand the situation that has arisen, to determine all the factors that are involved in it, in particular, to choose the right numerical data and put them in connection with each other - all this should enter into the circle of those skills that make up the solution of the problem. Children only then will

establish a connection ready “stylised” problems with calculations and processing done in life, only then truly will learn to navigate the issues of “arithmetic of life” when they will be faced with the need to create conditions for tasks when the tasks will be as close to the conditions in which they have to decide in life.

For these purposes, exercises are conducted in each class in solving practical tasks-calculations. The content of these tasks is taken from the surrounding life: for the younger classes—from the life of their class, from personal needs, from family life; for the older ones—from the social and economic life of their collective farm or their environment (in the city). The main content of the tasks is the calculation of costs, quantitative accounting of labor productivity and time, calculation of areas, volumes. For example:

1. Calculate the cost:

a) school breakfast for an individual student, for a class for a given period of time (day, month, academic year);

b) textbooks and writing materials for an individual student, class, school;

c) children’s magazines and newspapers issued for the classroom, school; books from the school library;

d) monetary and material costs associated with the organisation of holidays, equipment of games, decoration of the classroom and school, conducting long-distance excursions, visiting cinema and theatres by children, etc.

2. Calculate the time required for the student:

a) to complete school assignments at home;

b) to carry out work on the school site, in the garden, in the garden, etc.;

c) to perform work in connection with the participation of children in the preparation for the holiday, in the decoration of the classroom and school, etc.

3. Take into account the productivity of children:

a) at the school site;

6) in the household;

c) in the collective farm.

The solution of these tasks is connected with obtaining by the children themselves the necessary information, numerical data (prices, standards), using this data to compile invoices and simple estimates. This work develops students' independence and initiative, enriches them with valuable practical information.

The various goals pursued by the solution of tasks were described above, and the types of tasks that meet these goals were indicated. However, it should be borne in mind that in most cases different goals are achieved on the solution of the same task and the achievement of one of the goals contributes to the achievement of the other.

As a mandatory section, the initial arithmetic training includes measurement and geometry elements.

Children learn the metric system of measures, as well as measures of time and measures of value (money). Measures are studied in a known sequence, starting from class I. In the first place, such measures are put forward that are most used in life. From measures of length, it is a meter and a centimetre; from measures of weight, a kilogram and a gram; from measures of liquids, a litre; from measures of time, a day, an hour. When studying each new unit of measurement, the connection of the metric system of measures with the children's idea of numbering is taken into account. In accordance with this, the centimetre is introduced when the numbering is studied in the limit of 100 (1 m = 100 cm); gram it is introduced when 1,000 (1 kg = 1000 g) is studied, etc. The assimilation of complete tables of measures is timed to the study of the numbering of multi-digit numbers.

The study of measures is closely linked to measurement. After a direct and visual acquaintance with a particular unit of measurement, the latter is used in practice through exercises in measurement. The units of measurement of length are the distances, the lengths of objects—their length, width, height. The weight measurement units are used to

weigh various items. Capacity units used to determine the capacity of various vessels, etc.

Measurements are a necessary and important link in learning arithmetic. The school should equip children with good measuring skills. Therefore, it is necessary to exercise children in measurements as often as possible and develop their skills of accurate measurement, which is of great importance in life practice and especially in technology.

In class III, tables of metric measures of length, weight and cost are studied, as well as the fragmentation and transformation of these measures.

In class III, actions on composite named numbers are studied—first with metric measures, and then with time measures.

Only two-part named numbers are introduced into the actions, because in the practice of measurements at this stage, only such numbers are usually found. The material is arranged according to the principle of a gradual increase in difficulty, and the most difficult actions are considered to be those composite named numbers that, when fragmented into measures of a lower name (which is required in some cases to produce an action on them), give numbers with zeros in the middle, for example: 17 km 35 m = 17 035 m; 6 t 84 kg = 6084 kg; 9 kg 26 g = 9026 g; 16 rubles 4 kopecks = 1604 kopecks, etc.

In the IV class, square and cubic measures are studied. The study of them is connected with the development of geometric representations in children.

In the initial teaching of arithmetic, primary attention is paid to quantitative relations and number as the main tool for revealing these relations. At the same time, students are informed and some knowledge about the shape and size of objects, about distances and directions. By assimilating this knowledge, children learn to navigate in space, they develop spatial representations. Among these representations, representations of form play an important role. There are

many forms, they differ in the greatest variety. Of this set, only the most elementary and, moreover, of great practical importance are studied in class IV, namely: two forms of planes—a rectangle and a square, and two forms of geometric bodies —rectangular parallelepiped and cube. The properties of these figures and bodies are most accessible to the understanding of students.

The development of ideas about the size of objects and distances is closely and inextricably linked with measurement —with the study of measures and units of measurement, as well as with the measurement process. The study of geometric material in elementary grades begins with the study of a straight line, a straight line segment and angles. Next, the figures are considered—a rectangle and a square. This section ends with introducing children to square measures and measuring areas that have the shape of a square and a rectangle.

This is followed by familiarization of students with a cube and a rectangular parallelepiped, with the basic properties of these bodies and with cubic measures. The end of this section is the measurement and calculation of the volume of bodies having the shape of a cube and a rectangular parallelepiped.

With such a system, a strictly gradual increase in the complexity of the studied material is ensured. By class, this material is arranged as follows.

In the first grade, children learn to measure with a meter and a centimetre; get the first ideas about a kilogram, a litre and about the measures of time—a week, a day, an hour; learn to determine the time by the clock with an accuracy of an hour; get acquainted with coins; 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 15, 20 kopecks.

In class II, the knowledge of measures expands: from the measures of length, familiarity with the kilometre is given; exercises are performed in measuring the length, width and height of objects with a meter and a centimetre. From

weight measures, children get acquainted with the kilogram and gram and practice weighing using these weight measures. From the time measures, familiarity with the measures is given: year, month, week, day, hour, minute — and exercises are performed in determining the time by the clock to the minute.

In grade III, what was studied in previous classes is supplemented with a new one and is brought into the system (tables of measures of length, weight, capacity are studied, time). Measurements are made not only in meters, but also in smaller units of measurement—decimetres, centimetres and millimetres. Children practice measurements not only in the classroom, but also in an open area.

In the same class, the concept of a simple and compound named number is given.

In the IV class, the measurement of the areas of rectangular shapes is studied and measuring the volume of bodies having the shape of a rectangular parallelepiped. Measurements are carried out both in the classroom and in the open area. The measurement of areas is preceded by familiarization with such figures as a square and a rectangle. The measurement of volumes is preceded by familiarity with the basic properties of a cube and a rectangular parallelepiped. In the same class, students acquire skills in actions with composite named numbers, expressed both in metric measures and in time measures.

In primary school, children also get some knowledge about fractional numbers. Familiarity with fractions expands the concept of numbers in children. At the same time, children acquire knowledge that is needed in practical life, where they constantly have to deal with the account not only in whole units, but also in fractions.

Experience has shown that it is advisable to give an initial acquaintance with fractions in grades 11. Conscious study of fractions is possible only after the concept of an integer and actions on integers are well understood. A good

prerequisite for a clear understanding of a fractional number is also familiarity with named numbers.

One of the motives for introducing the concept of a share in the III class. It is also the fact that here we have to solve problems to find several parts of a number (for example, to find 3/4 of 60; 7/10 of 100, etc.).

For a better understanding by students of the essence of a fractional number—the formation and origin of fractions, the conversion of fractional numbers—it is more expedient to begin acquaintance with fractions by studying fractions: 1/2, 1/4, 1/8, 1/5 and 1/10, i.e., the study of ordinary fractions. These fractions are easy to obtain, they are concrete, easily observable, find frequent use in life, while hundredths and thousandths of a fraction—small fractions—are less specific for the student. Of course, in elementary school, only addition and subtraction of fractions can be considered, and moreover only fractions of the same name and multiples with the reduction of fractions to a common denominator for reasons without using the concept of the smallest multiple and the largest common divisor, which are not studied here.

Such a purely brief and elementary course of ordinary fractions is sufficient for children to get the most general orientation in a new variety of numbers for them and move on to the successful study of decimals in the future.

Fractions are studied in the IV class, but the concept of fractions of a unit—their formation and recording—is given already in the III class in connection with solving problems of finding several parts of a number.

Thus, the arithmetic program for grades I—IV consists of several sections—numeracy, problem solving, measurements and actions with compound named numbers, elementary concepts of fractions. Each of these sections has its own content and its own tasks, but together they form one inseparable whole and pursue one common goal—to introduce the child to an understanding of the quantitative relations of

the surrounding reality, to equip him with valuable skills and abilities for practical life and to develop his thinking.

In elementary grades, there is no clear differentiation of the program in separate sections of mathematics—arithmetic, geometry, etc. All the information received by students is grouped here around arithmetic. But in this academic subject, two tools of mathematical cognition—number and measure, as well as two sides of mathematical education—quantitative relations and spatial forms, already clearly appear. Ahead is the study of numbers as the main tool with which mathematics studies and establishes quantitative relations, and then work is already being introduced on the development of spatial representations in children. Thus, the arithmetic program contains everything necessary to give students the basics of mathematical education and prepare them for the successful assimilation of a mathematics course in high school,

History

Learning about the environment, children get acquainted with life. They observe the existing relationships between people, listen to adult conversations about the events taking place and are interested in many of them.

The manifestation of interest in public life, the desire to understand certain aspects of it, the desire to find out how people lived earlier, whether it was always the way it is now, indicates a very early awakening of historical interests in children.

In the first years of study (grades II and III) these interests of children are satisfied in explanatory reading lessons and then, in the fourth grade, in classes on the history of their homeland. The foundations of historical

education are laid here. At the same time, the following tasks are set:

1. To give children the idea that there is nothing unchangeable in life, that everything changes over time, everything moves forward—the old is always replaced by the new.

2. To introduce children in imaginative representations with the most important historical facts and stages of historical development.

3. To begin the formation of basic historical concepts in the minds of children and to help children realize the simplest connections between historical phenomena available to them.

4. To bring children through the knowledge of the past to the understanding of modernity and teach them to appreciate what has been achieved and won as a result of the centuries-old and heroic struggle of peoples.

5. To awaken and educate students with a sense of selfless love for their homeland and for their people, feelings of fervent patriotism and national pride inherent in the citizens of the first socialist country in the world, a feeling of hatred for all enemies and oppressors of workers.

The basic historical concepts begin to take shape in children already in the lower grades. At reading lessons, in conversations with the teacher, at lectures, children learn that people work and work hard to get everything necessary for life—food, clothes, housing, etc. Gradually students are led to the conclusions that it is impossible to live without work, work is the basis of life, that in our country all people work for the common good.

In grade III, children learn that people have not always worked and lived the way they live now, that people's lives change over time. Now in our country all people work, and in the past not everyone worked — there were workers and non-workers among the people, some worked, needing everything, while others lived idly and richly at the expense

of someone else's labour. This is how the concept of working and non-working people, the oppressed and oppressors begins to take shape.

In the fourth grade, these concepts are expanded and deepened. Children will learn about the life of peasants and workers in the past. In vivid pictures, the teacher draws serfdom for children. Children get acquainted with the living and working conditions of serfs and their struggle for freedom and land against serfs-landowners (revolts of Bolotnikov, Razin, Pugachev). Telling the children further about the abolition of serfdom, the teacher shows with concrete examples how the tsar and the landlords robbed the peasants, how hard and hopeless was the life of the peasants and after abolition of serfdom. Landlessness and ruin forced the peasant poor to go into bondage to the kulaks and landlords, or, losing the last remnants of the economy, go to work, turn into workers. The teacher describes to the children the hard labor conditions of workers in a capitalist factory, their disenfranchisement and difficult living conditions. So the children gradually form an idea of who the peasants are and who the workers are and how the workers differ from the peasants.

Telling the children about the struggle of peasants and workers against the oppressors, the teacher gives the initial concept of the class struggle. Gradually revealing this concept, the teacher shows the children on concrete facts the importance of the unity of the workers in the struggle, the importance of the union of workers and peasants. Introducing children to this or that peasant uprising, the teacher emphasizes that the peasants suffered defeat because of their disorganisation, lack of awareness of the goal in the struggle. And, conversely, introducing episodes of the labor movement, strikes, uprisings, he draws the attention of children to the organisation of workers and a clear understanding of their goals of the struggle. These oppositions lead the children to the conclusion that in order

to win, it was necessary for the peasants to be led by workers. But, getting acquainted with the first stages of the revolutionary movement, for example, with the revolution of 1905, children see by concrete examples that the workers suffered defeats without the support of the peasants (soldiers, i.e. the same peasants, shot at the workers on January 9, 1905, suppressed the December armed uprising in Moscow in the same year, etc.).

By vividly illuminating the historical facts of the class struggle, the teacher leads the children to the conclusion that the peasants and workers could win only by uniting and organizing for a joint struggle. This conclusion will allow children to understand the greatest role of Lenin, Stalin, the role of the Bolshevik Party in the struggle of workers and peasants against their oppressors. Lenin, Stalin, the Bolshevik Party were the organisers of the workers and led the peasants. Thanks to this, the workers won in February 1917 and in the Great October Socialist Revolution.

The ideas about all this that arise in the minds of students should serve as the basis for the subsequent formation of concepts about the primitive communal system, feudalism, capitalism, about the bourgeois and proletarian revolutions, socialism, communism.

Along with elementary concepts of class struggle, children also get some ideas about the state. Using concrete examples, they see the organisation of power of the ruling class: the prince and his retinue, the boyar-noble power in the Russian state of the XV-XVII centuries, the power of the nobles under Peter I, Catherine II, Nicholas I, the power of the landlords and the bourgeoisie after the abolition of serfdom, etc.

Children usually get ideas about the state as an organisation of violence of the ruling class when they get acquainted with the suppression of popular movements, with the executions of people's leaders, revolutionaries, cruelties towards all fighters for the people's cause.

Comprehending and summarizing the facts related to the activities of the state of princes, boyars, tsar, landlords and capitalists, children will understand why it was necessary to destroy this state, overthrow the power of oppressors and establish the power of workers and peasants, i.e. to create a state of the workers themselves.

Students should also understand that the Soviet state must be firm, strong and inflexible in the fight against the enemies of the people, against the oppressors who have been destroyed in our country, but have been preserved in others, capitalist countries and look with hatred at our free homeland, constantly dreaming of capturing and enslaving it.

In the same way, consistently, starting from the lower grades, children develop an initial concept of the motherland. In the third grade, from a series of episodic stories depicting heroic images of the past, children get an idea of how our people fought for their homeland. In class IV, these representations are expanded. Children will learn about the struggle of Kievan Rus against nomads, about the fight against the Germans and Swedes, with Polish invaders, about the Patriotic War of 1812, etc.

Russian people's unity with other peoples of our country in the joint struggle against foreign invaders (for example, the struggle of Ukrainians and Russians against Polish lords in the XVII century; participation of Ukrainians in the war with the Swedes under Peter the Great; actions of white-Russian partisans in the Patriotic War of 1812, etc.). The concept of rbdina is formed in the minds of children as the concept of a fraternal family of peoples. Russian Russian oppressors, for example, the participation of the peoples of the Volga region in the uprisings of Bolotnikov, Razin, Pugachev, and the participation of the Azerbaijani people in the struggle against tsardom, against the Russians and their national oppressors (for example, the participation of the peoples of the Volga region in the uprisings of Bolotnikov, Razin, Pugachev, the participation of the Azerbaijani people). Therefore,

wherever it is a question of joining tsarist Russia or their position under the rule of tsarism, the attention of children is drawn to the unity of the oppressed peoples with the Russian people in the struggle against tsarism, against the Russians and their national oppressors.

Georgian workers and workers of other nationalities in the revolutionary struggle together with the Russian proletariat). Children should understand what a huge importance the unity of the peoples of tsarist Russia, rallying around the great Russian people, had for the victory of the revolution in our country.

In the theme "The Great Patriotic War" on concrete facts, the teacher shows children the inviolability of the unity and friendship of fraternal peoples and their invincibility thanks to this unity.

The complex concept of the motherland can be assimilated by children only in basic terms. In an elementary, accessible form, children receive, for example, ideas about the centuries-old struggle of our people with backwardness, about the development of its culture, about the role of our motherland in world history.

The teacher shows the children on concrete historical facts that the main reason for the backwardness of Russia in the nineteenth century was serfdom. It led Russia to weakening and defeat in the Crimean War of 1853-1856.

After the abolition of serfdom, its remnants were preserved, and consequently, backwardness was preserved. Its result was defeat of Tsarist Russia in the war with Japan in 1904-1905 and in the First World War, people should make sure on concrete facts that only the Great October Socialist Revolution in Russia destroyed all oppression in the country and thereby ensured its rapid development.

Introducing children to the life of our people under the yoke of tsarism, the teacher shows that even in the most difficult conditions, the people created their wonderful culture. At the moment of the highest heyday of serfdom,

overcoming all obstacles, the greatest scientist M. V. Lomonosov emerged from the people's thicket. During the period of the country's serfdom backwardness, in the first half of the nineteenth century, our motherland gave the world such great people as Pushkin and Glinka.

Speaking about culture in the conditions of tsarist Russia, it is extremely important to show children the inaccessibility of scientific knowledge and culture to the people, mass illiteracy of the population, difficult working conditions for scientists, artists, writers at that time. All this is covered by concrete examples and in vivid pictures.

Understanding these facts will lead children to understand the enormous significance of the Great October Socialist Revolution, which opened up unprecedented opportunities for the cultural growth of the people in any country in the world.

The idea of the role of our motherland in world history is also given on concrete facts, in a form accessible to children. Thus, a vivid description of the heroic struggle of Russia against the Mongol-Tatar yoke will help children to understand the fact that our people saved Western Europe from ruin and enslavement with their blood; Russia was conquered, but with its heroic resistance it inflicted such incurable wounds on the enemy that the conquerors lacked the strength for their further advancement.

Children will also learn that our homeland dealt a crushing blow to the German knights and thereby destroyed their aggressive plans.

Russia shattered the dreams of domination over the world of Charles II and Napoleon Bonaparte, who conquered almost all of Europe.

Along with this, it is necessary to show children that. our motherland has given the world many great scientists, writers, artists, musicians and — what is most valuable - has given the greatest geniuses of mankind - Lenin and Stalin,

who led our people to communism and showed the way to a new life to all the peoples of the globe.

The Jews should be clear about the exceptional significance of the Great October Socialist Revolution and the construction of socialism in the USSR as an example for the working and oppressed peoples of all countries.

Finally, children will see the leading role of the Soviet Union in the defeat of fascism, in the liberation of mankind from fascist slavery; they will learn that all progressive and advanced humanity has received in the face of the USSR the greatest support for its development and struggle. The USSR is a guiding star, a beacon for the working and oppressed of the whole world. It is necessary to bring children to this conclusion.

The disclosure of all the main historical concepts finds its completion in modernity. Tracing the main stages of the versatile historical development, children are brought to an understanding of the role and significance of the socialist revolution and subsequent socialist construction in our country.

Thus, the theme “The Great October Socialist Revolution” is the nodal theme of the initial history classes. In this topic, children will learn about the victory of the workers, that the workers themselves became the masters of their country, the masters of the land, factories, factories, etc. and at the same time labor became free, the workers stopped working for the owners, and began to work for themselves; they created their own state, the state of the workers, the fraternal union of the peoples of the USSR. Under the leadership of Lenin,

Stalin, the Bolshevik Party, our people have begun and continue to build a new, free life.

History classes end with the topics “The Great Patriotic War” and “The USSR after the War”. The teacher reveals the content of these topics based on the historical ideas and concepts already available to children. Telling about the

heroism of the Soviet Army and the entire Soviet people during the war and about the triumph of victory, the teacher consistently leads the children to the conclusion that our people won thanks to the unity of workers and peasants, the unity and friendship of the peoples of the USSR, united around the Communist Party of Lenin-Stalin. The USSR, unlike tsarist Russia, backward and weak, which repeatedly suffered defeats because of its weakness, became an advanced country thanks to the construction of socialism. Our homeland turned out to be so technically equipped and powerful that it was able to resist the forces of almost the whole of Europe and defeat them.

Using vivid examples, the teacher shows the heroic work of the Soviet people after the war and the leading role of the USSR in the struggle for democracy and world peace.

Thus, by studying the past of our people, children are brought to an understanding of modernity, and this is one of the most important tasks of teaching history. The teacher introduces students to vivid pictures of socialist construction, compares Soviet reality with the life of workers in the past, and children will begin to understand the advantage of the Soviet system, appreciate the achievements of the Great October Socialist Revolution. This, in turn, will contribute to the education of feelings of Soviet patriotism and national pride in them.

The formation of the listed basic and leading concepts in the minds of students has an exceptionally great cognitive and educational value. Tracing all historical phenomena not in isolation from each other, but in interconnection will lead students to understand some of the simplest cause-and-effect relationships in history, to understand that people's lives do not stand still, but gradually develop, change, move forward. Children will see and understand that every day our people are lifting higher and higher. "Today we are not what we were yesterday, and tomorrow we will not be what we were today. We are no longer the Russians we were before

1917. Russia is no longer the same, and our character is not the same. We have changed and grown together with the greatest transformations that have radically changed the face of our country" (Zhdanov).

To show these new, high qualities of Soviet people, to show our people not only today, but to look into their tomorrow, to help illuminate the way forward with a spotlight - this instruction of Comrade Zhdanov entirely refers to the great educational tasks that the school faces and the teaching of history will help to implement.

Geography

When studying geography in the lower grades, the task of arming students with knowledge about how natural conditions affect people's economic activities and how human labour transforms nature is set and resolved.

By communicating this knowledge to children, it is necessary to show by convincing examples the grandiose activity of the Soviet man to transform nature, to give an idea of the rich natural resources of the Soviet Union and that only under Soviet rule the natural resources of our country began to be truly studied and used.

In tsarist Russia, under the rule of landlords and capitalists, natural resources were used predationally, exclusively in the interests of the exploiting classes. In the Soviet Union, incalculable natural resources have become a national treasure, a pillar of socialist economic construction aimed at improving the living standards of all citizens of the Soviet State.

In order for children to be able to understand the nature and huge scale of our economic achievements, it is necessary to introduce them to socialist construction sites (if possible,

then show the construction sites in the process of their creation).

Geographical knowledge about one's homeland, communicated in primary school in close connection with the study of its history, is of great ideological, educational and practical importance. They prepare students to participate in socialist construction and educate them in the spirit of Soviet patriotism. However, the successful study of the geography of their homeland, the awareness of geographical phenomena by students and the versatile connection between them is possible only if the children are have a preliminary geographical training. For this purpose, in the lessons of explanatory reading, children are given some concepts about the geographical environment and about the economic activity of a person in it.

By reading articles of geographical content, making excursions, looking at paintings and illustrations, plans and maps, children acquire initial concepts about the life of people both in rural areas and in cities, about the shapes of the earth's surface, about water on Earth, about weather and climate, about orientation on the terrain, about the plan and map.

Children distinguish between the city and the village mainly in connection with the occupations of the inhabitants. Workers and employees live in cities, collective farmers and employees live in villages. Workers are employed in industry, collective farmers are engaged in agriculture. The difference between industry and agriculture is explained to children by concrete examples. Thus, the cultivation of flax belongs to agriculture, while the production of yarn and linen from flax fibres belongs to industry. Pig breeding is a branch of agriculture, and the manufacture of pork sausage products at the factory is a branch of industrial production, etc.

Mastering the concepts—city, village, worker, collective farmer, industry, agriculture, children at the same time get acquainted: 1) with pictures of the life of the collective

farm, with the appointment of the most important agricultural lands (field, vegetable garden, meadow, pasture, shrub, forest), with the seasonal sequence of the most important agricultural work (ploughing, harrowing, sowing, harvesting, threshing); 2) with pictures of the life of a large city, with the external appearance and internal structure of its factories and plants.

Along with that children acquire concepts about the Railways, that the settlements join: Railways (railway rails fixed on the wooden sleepers, which are usually on the mound), highway (roads with artificial turf—asphalt, concrete, cobblestone, etc.), dirt roads (not with artificial turf) and trails (narrow roads on which the movement is impossible on wheels).

Familiarisation with the forms of the earth's surface begins with the study of shallow planar areas: horizontal platforms, gentle slopes, steep slopes, cliffs (steep slopes differ from gentle ones in that they cannot be entered by car, cart, etc.).

From flat sections of the earth's surface, children move on to familiarizing themselves with the most common forms of micro-relief (small relief) on the school grounds, for example, hills, ravines.

In conclusion, the children look at the nearest plain, learn that horizontal platforms and gentle slopes predominate on the plain, and steep slopes and cliffs are rare.

Then the children are given the concept of mountains—mountain ranges and peaks, valleys located between the ridges. In close connection with this, children get acquainted with the life of people in the mountains and on the plains.

Getting initial knowledge about water in nature, children get acquainted with groundwater, with springs as natural outlets of groundwater, and wells as human structures designed to extract underground water.

Further, children form concepts about flowing waters—about streams and rivers that differ in their length, width and depth; about stagnant waters—about lakes, ponds, swamps, seas.

In connection with the concept of the sea, about the seashore, concepts are given—a peninsula, an isthmus, an island, a strait.

Familiarization of children with the concepts of source, well, stream, river, etc. should be accompanied by clarification of the importance that these geographical objects have for the national economy.

The concepts of weather and climate are formed in connection with observations of changes in nature, especially in connection with alternation seasons.

It is very important that observations of seasonal phenomena in classes II and III are accompanied by a record of dates. Comparing these records, children will notice, on the one hand, that the weather of different years is different, and on the other, that, despite these differences, the recorded dates make it possible to anticipate, predict the onset of a particular seasonal phenomenon in subsequent years.

Along with observing the local weather and local seasonal phenomena, children get acquainted with various weather phenomena and their significance for humans in other climatic regions of our vast country by reading.

The concepts that children master in connection with orientation on the terrain include: the horizon line, the horizon and the sides of the horizon—east, south, west, north, distinguished by the visible movement of the sun across the firmament.

In the third grade, students are given the concept of a plan as a drawing, which depicts the place occupied by the subject. In this regard, children get the concept of scale as a substitute for a large measure of a small one and of conventional signs that allow them to recognize objects of

the same size and shape on the plan. Then the children get acquainted with the topographic plan.

Children learn these concepts not by memorizing verbal definitions given in a ready-made form, but as a result of specific ideas obtained in the process of observing nature and working with visual aids in the classroom.

Based on these ideas, the teacher leads the children to identify the essential features of the studied subjects, phenomena, and at the same time to establish a connection between physical and geographical concepts and concepts of human economic activity. So, explaining to children that rivers are of great importance for our economy, that they supply settlements with water, are a place of fishing, are a cheap form of transport (rafting and shipping), help irrigate arid lands and provide electrical energy, the teacher at the same time shows how a person affects the “life” of rivers: clears and deepens their channels with dredgers, straightens the windings of rivers, builds protective structures on river banks to protect settlements from flooding, blocks rivers with powerful dams, while creating huge reservoirs, connects individual rivers with channels into a single water transport network, etc.

In the third grade, students not only receive initial idea about the plan and learn to read it, For the children to practice pre-definition of directions in the area, the designation of areas in the drawing, in the measurement of distances on the ground, the designation of the measured distances in the drawing using the scale in the drawing and reading of simple rectangular plans, working with topographic plan.

At each of these stages, children are trained in solving the corresponding tasks.

In the fourth grade, geography is introduced as an independent academic subject. In this regard, the range of physio-geographic representations and concepts in children,

which they need for further geography classes in the senior grades of a seven-year school, is significantly expanding.

In the topic “The Globe”, children study parts of the world, oceans, heat belts and are brought to an understanding of the geographical location of the USSR.

As a result of studying the second section—”A brief overview of the USSR on the physical map”—children should not only know the spatial location of the most important physical and geographical objects of our homeland, but also to have a figurative idea about them. So, for example, along with considering the outlines and extent of the sea and land borders of the USSR on a geographical map, children read or listen to the teacher’s stories about the transport and commercial significance of the seas of the USSR, about the life of Soviet sailors, about the vigilance and exploits of Soviet border guards.

Then the children are given ideas and concepts about the natural zones of the USSR. At the same time, sufficient attention is paid to the elements of physical geography. This corresponds to the decree of the Council of People’s Commissars of the USSR and the Central Committee of the CPSU(B) of May 16, 1934 “On Teaching Geography in Primary and Secondary Schools”.

The zonal examination of the USSR, more than anything else, makes it possible to select geographical material accessible to children and present it vividly, entertainingly, in the form of small essays.

In the zonal study of the USSR, children deal with a very small number of the territories under consideration and therefore relatively easily master their characteristics.

Finally, the zonal study of the USSR, which is quite feasible for children, allows them to show diverse geographical connections on concrete examples, namely: a) the interaction between the natural environment and human economic activity; b) the causal relationship between individual physical and geographical elements (for example,

between the climate and the regime of rivers, between climate and vegetation, etc.).

Geography classes in the fourth grade end with a brief political overview of the USSR. As a result of passing this section, children should be able to show sixteen union republics on the map, give their compressed characteristics, using the actual material that was studied during the passage of natural zones.

This final section of the program allows children to realize their vast and multinational fatherland as a fraternal union of equal Soviet peoples, together building communism and together repelling the attack of enemies.

Natural Science

The task of initial natural science education is to develop and deepen children's interest in nature, to bring into the system the scattered impressions they received before entering school, to enrich their consciousness with concrete and vivid images, to equip them with the initial knowledge about nature necessary for studying botany, zoology, anatomy and human physiology courses in high school.

The school teaches children to make simple generalizations based on the observation of individual subjects. Comparing objects with each other, children they should notice their similarities and differences and learn to group them by characteristic features (for example: birch, linden, oak—deciduous trees; spruce, pine—coniferous trees; apple, pear—fruit trees; gooseberry, currant—berry bushes, etc.).

Studying nature, children should learn that the objects of nature do not remain unchanged: the appearance of the forest, garden, field changes according to the seasons, a plant grows from a seed, it blooms, a fruit forms from a flower; granite collapses and turns into sand and clay, and

new stones are formed from them - sandstone and clay shale, etc. All these changes occur under the influence of natural causes. The teacher should help children to understand these reasons, to realize the simplest connections between phenomena.

In natural science lessons, the teacher shows children how a person, studying nature, masters its forces and riches, how Soviet people use the forces and riches of nature for socialist construction.

In an accessible form, the children get acquainted with the life and work of Soviet scientists—transformers of nature—I. V. Michurin and T. D. Lysenko and with the achievements of the heroes of labour—the leaders of socialist agriculture.

By showing children nature as it is, the school lays a solid foundation for educating children with a materialistic worldview. It is not difficult for a teacher to show children the absurdity and harm of various superstitions and prejudices associated with certain natural phenomena.

The education of children's love for the motherland is the most important task of the school. The homeland for a child is, first of all, the corner of the Earth where he was born and lives. The forest, blooming gardens and meadows, a silver stream, the starry sky and many other natural phenomena fill the child's soul with joyful experiences, from which deep affection is born and a passionate love for the nature of the motherland. To awaken children's love for their native nature means to lay a solid foundation for the education of patriotic feelings in them. The teacher's stories about the Russian researchers who transformed nature (Lomonosov, Pavlov, Michurin, Lysenko and others), about the victories won over nature by Soviet people under the leadership of the Communist Party, contribute to the deepening of these feelings.

At primary school, children get acquainted with the objects and phenomena of the surrounding nature that are

most accessible to them: the seasons, the earth, water, air, stones and metals, cultural and wild plants, domestic and wild animals, the structure and life of the human body.

First of all, it is necessary to study objects and natural phenomena typical of the area.

However, some stones, plants and animals should be known by all children, no matter what natural conditions the school is located in. These are the objects of nature that are typical for our country. For example, without exception, all students should know rye, wheat, potatoes, sunflower, flax, cotton, birch, spruce, pine, horse, cow, hare, bear, wolf, squirrel, etc.

In the absence of them in the surrounding area, they will not be the first plants and animals that children get to know, but it is necessary to introduce children to them, at least with the help of drawings, collections and descriptions.

Studying different objects of nature, children learn to distinguish them and describe them correctly. To do this, they must have correct ideas about some of the properties of objects and be able to accurately express them in words. So, for example, children should already in the first grade know the colours: red, green, blue, yellow, white, black; shapes: round, like a ball, triangular, square; quantities and spatial relationships: higher—smaller, wider—narrower, deeper—shallower, higher—lower, closer—farther; metre, centimetre, kilogram, litre, hour, day; distinguish between tastes: sweet, bitter, salty, sour; surface character: smooth, slippery, rough.

In Class II, the circle of these representations expands. Children will additionally learn colours: orange, purple, brown (brown), grey, crimson, blue, pink. Distinguish shades of colours: reddish, light red, dark red, greenish, light green, dark green, silver, golden; get acquainted with the shapes: quadrangular, pentagonal, hexagonal, oblong, etc.

In subsequent classes, these representations are fixed and clarified. As needed, more complex terms and concepts are introduced, for example: spherical, oval, cylindrical, etc.

For four consecutive years, starting from the first steps of learning, children's understanding of the seasons has been expanding.

In the first grade, children should know the sequence of changing times the year and the main signs of each season.

In grade II, children also observe seasonal phenomena, but more fully and deeply. A temperature record is entered by the thermometer.

The shortest day in winter and the days of the autumn and spring equinoxes are celebrated.

The time of freezing of the reservoir, the appearance of the first frost, the fall of the first snow, the establishment of a sledge path, measurements of the depth of the snow cover are made. The date of the appearance of the first thawing, the opening of the river, etc. is marked.

Observations of seasonal changes in the life of individual plants are carried out.

There are changes in the life of animals: the disappearance and appearance of insects, the departure and arrival of birds, spring moulting of animals, the appearance of chicks, the first day of pasture of the herd, etc.

In Class III, weather observations become even more complicated. The calendar notes: air temperature, clouds, precipitation, wind strength and direction, and, if possible, pressure. A connection is established between the individual elements of the weather: wind direction and temperature, clouds and precipitation, between pressure and precipitation, etc. The correctness of several local folk signs about the weather is checked. More detailed observations of the development of individual agricultural plants, the duration of the period of development of some plants is calculated. The timing of the onset of seasonal phenomena for a number of years is compared.

In the fourth grade, observations of the weather are conducted in connection with geography classes.

During all four years of initial training, children get acquainted with objects and phenomena of inanimate nature: water, air, stones, metals, soil.

In grades I and II, children learn about water that it happens in rivers, ponds, wells. In the river, the water flows all the time, in the pond it stands still. Water freezes from frost, turns into ice. Ice is hard, slippery, brittle, transparent. You can skate on the ice. Ice floats in water — it is lighter than water. The ice melts from the heat and turns into water. In summer it rains from the clouds, in winter it snows. Snowflakes have the right shape. The snow is white. Untrodden snow is loose; trampled snow is dense. Snow protects the seeds and seedlings sown in autumn from frost plants. Snow can be moulded during a thaw. From the heat, the snow melts and turns into water.

In grade III, children will learn where the water in rivers and streams comes from, where it goes. They get the first ideas about the work of water in nature.

In the fourth grade, children are given the concept of water as a liquid, the properties of water are clarified. Information is reported on the use of the power of water and steam, about the inventor of the steam engine Polzunov.

Air for observation of children is less available than water. Therefore, information about the air is mainly given in the IV class. In the previous grades (II and III), you can acquaint children with the wind—its origin and work.

In the fourth grade, children get acquainted with the most important physical properties of air and its composition, learn about the use of wind power, the importance of clean air for health.

In this class, children are given initial information about electricity.

Minerals, soil are mainly studied in the IV class. However, already in the first grade it is advisable to introduce children

to the properties of sand and clay. In grades II and III, it is desirable to organise the collection of collections of stones and metals and teach children to distinguish some of them by their appearance.

In the same classes, in connection with the work on growing plants, children receive initial information about the soil: the soil is sandy, clayey, black earth, dense and loose. In order for plants to grow well on the soil, it must be carefully processed and fertilized.

In the IV class, the most important rocks and metals are studied, knowledge about the soil is systematized and deepened. Children are given an elementary concept of soil fertility as its main essential feature and ways to increase fertility, developed by the outstanding scientist V.R. Williams.

Children begin to get acquainted with plants already in the first grade. They learn to distinguish by appearance the most common trees, shrubs and herbaceous plants in a given area, to indicate and name the roots, stem (trunk), branches, leaves, flowers and fruits of plants. Children learn how people use trees; acquire the ability to distinguish between several indoor plants, find and indicate their main parts, water them, wipe dust from the leaves.

Children should recognize the seeds of some vegetable and flower plants by their appearance (for example, peas, beans, beans, nasturtiums, etc.), have an idea of seed germination and development from this plant, learn how to sow in boxes and on ridges and take care of seedlings.

In the second grade, children get acquainted with vegetable plants in more detail, learn to distinguish their main parts, practically get acquainted with the technique of growing root crops, potatoes and cabbage; they study several weeds. In the same class, the knowledge about forest plants previously acquired by children, their acquaintance with garden plants, the ability to distinguish these plants by appearance, show and name their main parts, take care of

them, expand and deepen. In this regard, it is necessary to familiarize children with I. V. Michurin's techniques for breeding new varieties of fruit and berry plants.

In the third grade, children get acquainted in more detail with the cultivated plants grown in this area—grain (rye, wheat, corn, etc.), fodder (clover, turnips, etc.), technical (flax, hemp, cotton, sugar beet, etc.), vegetable and garden; learn to grow seedlings of tomatoes and cucumbers, transplant seedlings into the ground and take care of planted plants. In an accessible form, children should be introduced to the experiments and achievements of T. D. Lysenko on breeding new varieties of tomatoes, potatoes, etc.

In the fourth grade, the study of plants should be continued, conducting it in connection with explanatory reading, speech development, and especially in connection with practical work at the school site. It is necessary to introduce children to the plants of local berry orchards and gardens and expand students' knowledge about how to cultivate and fertilize the soil for these plants, how to plant strawberries, berry bushes, fruit trees, how to take care of them.

In the fourth grade, children also get acquainted with plants that are not cultivated in local agriculture: rice, tea, lemon, tangerine, sugar cane, cotton, date and coconut palms.

When studying plants throughout all four years of study, one should emphasize the idea that plants are alive, that their life and development are impossible without certain conditions, that by changing these conditions a person can influence the growth and development of plants in the direction he needs.

In the first grade, children begin to get acquainted with the most common domestic and wild animals in the area, learn to distinguish them by their appearance, learn what this animal eats, how it escapes from enemies, what benefits or harm it brings to a person.

When studying animals, children should consciously learn the following concepts: pets, wild animals, wintering birds, migratory birds, insects.

In grade II, familiarisation with pets continues. Studying a vegetable garden, a garden, a forest, children get acquainted not only with plants, but also with the animal world of these lands (toads, tit, starling, owl, woodpecker, squirrel, ladybug, cabbage white, hawthorn, ringed silkworm, bark beetle, may beetle, etc.). At the same time, the relationship between animals and plants becomes clear and becomes clear to children.

At the end of the year, the children's knowledge about animals that they received in the second grade should be brought into the system. Children should firmly learn that animals are not only animals, but also birds, snakes, lizards, frogs, fish, insects, worms. They are all alive - they feed, move, reproduce, feel. Children remember what various animals eat and divide them into herbivores, carnivores and omnivores. Among all these groups of animals there are useful and harmful to humans. The first must be protected, and the second destroyed. The teacher draws the children's attention to various ways of moving animals (running, jumping, swimming, fly, etc.), putting them in connection with the structure of the limbs and the habitat. They recall the most important biological features of animals: how different animals find their prey, catch it, how they escape from enemies, how they spend the winter.

In class III, some pets studied earlier (horse, cow, pig, sheep) are re-examined, and poultry (chicken, duck, goose) and bee are additionally studied. At the same time, attention is drawn not only to the biological characteristics of animals, but also to the organisation and achievements of socialist animal husbandry.

Of the wild animals, in addition to the previously studied ones, the snake, viper, lizard, frog, crucian carp, pike, floating beetle, earthworm, snail, as well as other animals

common in the surrounding area of the school are considered. They are studied in the same way as in grade II, but more attention is paid to the development of animals (the development of a butterfly, bee, frog, chicken).

In the fourth grade, the study of animals continues in connection with explanatory reading. With the help of books and visual aids, you should familiarize children with animals living in cold and hot countries, and not only with land, but also living in the seas and oceans, while paying attention to the features of their body structure related to the lifestyle and habitat of these animals.

Along with the study of plants and animals, the study of the human body is carried out throughout all four years in connection with the work on instilling sanitary and hygienic skills in children.

In the first grade, the specific idea of children about human body parts is clarified, the skill of correct sitting at the desk is instilled, children learn the rules of personal hygiene specified in the program.

In grade II, children acquire the initial concepts of nutrition, sleep, the use of air, water and the sun; they acquire hygienic nutrition skills, skills of keeping the room and classroom clean, personal hygiene skills related to sleep.

In the third grade, work continues on the study of the human body and health protection. Children are given basic knowledge about the skeleton, muscles, the most important internal organs and hygiene; about infectious (infectious) diseases and measures to prevent them,

In the IV class, knowledge about infectious and non-contagious human diseases, about microbes that cause diseases, about the causes of the spread of infectious diseases is expanded: infection through touch (scabies), through food (typhoid fever, cholera, dysentery), through exhaled air (tuberculosis), by getting microbes into the blood (malaria, typhus). Children will learn that flies, mosquitoes, lice are the distributors of infectious diseases, learn about

measures to combat them. Children get ideas about how to prevent the disease with contagious diseases and master the necessary skills in this regard. Students should be introduced to the main achievements of socialist healthcare.

Painting

Drawing in primary school aims, like other school subjects, to give children a comprehensive development.

Teaching children the basics of visual literacy, the teacher at the same time directs his attention to the development of their powers of observation, concepts about the subjects of the image and typical features inherent in them.

In the process of learning to draw, children develop spatial representations.

Drawing is also one of the most important means of educating children's creative abilities and artistic taste. It develops children's interest in fine art and love for the artistic culture of their homeland.

The course of teaching drawing in elementary grades includes: drawing from nature, decorative drawing (drawing patterns), drawing on topics and conversations about art.

In the first grade, when drawing from nature, the task is first set to develop in children the necessary ability to consider objects whose forms in the frontal position represent the simplest geometric figure (a handkerchief, frame, book, briefcase, flag, etc.), and to convey the shape and color of this object in the drawing. Then the children learn to depict objects that have the shape of a ring in the frontal position. And at the end of the year, they draw from nature objects of mixed shape (an axe, a shovel, a palette, etc.) and the simplest leaves of plants in shape.

In grade II, children draw objects from nature, the shape of which in a generalized form approaches a pentagon, and

also draw dried leaves that have a one-color color and transition from one color to another (for example, from green to yellow). In the second half of the year, children move on to drawing objects that have the shape of an ellipsis and an oval (tray, hand mirror, etc.), and also draw objects whose outline consists of a combination of the studied figures (sickle, guitar, etc.). At the end of the year, children draw butterflies, beetles and leaves with more complex shapes from nature.

Starting from the third grade, the drawing of objects is already conducted in the full sense of the word from nature, with mandatory consideration of the point of view of the drawing.

In this class, the concept of perspective is given. First, children get acquainted with the perspective image of objects of square and round shapes, then they learn to transfer objects bounded by planes (a stool, a suitcase, etc.), as well as cylindrical and spherical objects (a ball, a globe, dishes, vegetables, fruits, etc.) in perspective. Using chiaroscuro, they transmit their volume.

In the fourth grade, children continue to study the basics of perspective image and volume transfer. First, they draw geometric bodies from nature, then proceed to drawing objects of conical shape (flower pot, coffee pot, etc.), as well as objects whose shape consists of combinations of previously studied shapes (jug, vase).

Decorative drawing is of particular importance in the development of a sense of colour, since children are tasked with building a variety of colour combinations.

Drawing patterns in grades I and II is based mainly on geometric shapes. Starting from Class II, flowers and leaves are introduced as elements of the pattern.

In grades I, II and III, the content of drawing training includes special exercises that develop elementary technical skills: draw vertical and horizontal lines; draw small geometric shapes by hand - a circle, a square; divide the

lines by eye in half and into equal parts; colour the outline of the drawing without going beyond its boundaries; close exactly the plane with paint.

Drawing patterns should be put in connection with familiarizing children with samples of folk decorative art: with embroidery, tableware painting, wood carving, etc., as well as with samples of artistic design of modern industrial products (fabric, wallpaper, ceramics).

Drawing on themes also takes place in all primary classes. Thematic drawing is carried out in the classroom and in the homework system, followed by checking the work in the classroom. The topics for these works are closely related to the educational material on the Russian language, history, geography and other subjects. Throughout all four years of drawing training, work is underway on the font and graphic design of slogans, posters, weather calendar, etc.

Conversations in connection with the display of reproductions from the best works of painting are of great importance for the artistic education of children. These conversations should educate children's interest in fine art, the ability to see a work of art and understand it as much as possible.

Singing

The importance of music in the primary education and upbringing of children is enormous. With its special means, it not only contributes to the artistic education of children, but also has a great influence on the formation of their moral image. Thanks to the strong the emotional impact of music causes children to have a certain attitude to the phenomena of their surrounding life. She is able to awaken and develop in them the highest, noblest feelings and aspirations peculiar to the Soviet man. But in order for music to affect children,

it must be close and understandable for them. This is achieved primarily by the fact that children themselves are involved in musical activity in the simplest and most natural way for them - through singing. The development of singing skills is the main task of musical work in primary school. Along with this other tasks are also pursued—children are brought up with a musical taste, they learn to consciously relate to music, to understand musical phenomena that are accessible to their understanding.

In the first grade, children learn that there are different types of songs: marching, dancing, lingering, lullabies; fast, moderate or slow in tempo; smooth and jerky.

Along with these general initial concepts about the song, children also acquire a number of practical knowledge and skills, for example: standing or sitting straight, holding their head straight, opening their mouths well, pronouncing words clearly, etc.

Children get acquainted with the recording of notes on the sheet music, with the treble clef, the sound order, with the names of the notes. They learn to distinguish 5 sounds by recording (up to the salt of the first octave), to distinguish which sounds are long, which are short (quarters and eighths), to understand the recording of simple examples in the volume indicated above and to sing according to it.

In grade II, children learn new songs. They learn to sing the “Anthem of the Soviet Union”. In this regard, they are given the concept of the music of the anthem (a solemn song).

Children learn to sing a wide variety of songs — wide, melodious, fast, mobile. They sing songs that require content and more diverse expressive performance.

In grade II, students master the recording of notes on a musical notation within eight sounds and practically get acquainted with the durations of notes.

In the third grade, the repertoire of songs is significantly expanded. Russian composers, Tchaikovsky, Rimsky—Korsakov

and others continue to practically get acquainted with the songs of Soviet composers, learn the songs of wonderful Russian composers, sing folk songs: Russian, Belarusian, Ukrainian.

The diverse nature of the songs in this class is due to the use of various means of musical expression: tempo, rhythm, dynamics, etc.

In the third grade, students also get the concept of one of the most striking means of musical expression — the major and minor frets.

In the fourth grade, children's knowledge of music is even more enriched. They get acquainted with a number of mass songs by Soviet composers. In these songs the thoughts and feelings of the Soviet man, his pride in his great homeland, his unwavering determination to fight the enemies, his devotion to the leader of the peoples, Comrade Stalin, find expression.

Along with this, songs from the life of the children of our country are sung, songs about the wonderful present and future of our schoolchildren and pioneers, songs about their work and rest.

In the IV grade, students get acquainted with the works of Russian opera classics.

Physical Training

The content of physical training lessons in primary school is aimed at the comprehensive physical development of children, strengthening their health, physical hardening and improving the overall performance of their body. At the same time, physical training lessons are aimed at developing moral and strong-willed qualities in children: conscious discipline, collectivism, determination, courage, courage and self-control.

The content of physical training lessons, starting from the first grade, includes various kinds of gymnastic exercises, walking, balance and games. From the III class, in addition, ski training is introduced.

Conducting these exercises pursues certain pedagogical tasks that become more complicated from class to class.

In the first grade, systematic and at the same time careful work begins on the uniform development of the entire muscular system of the child. This purpose is served by general gymnastic exercises, as well as arbitrary climbing on the gymnastic wall, crawling and climbing on an obliquely placed gymnastic bench.

Along with this, the task is to develop in children the skill to make movements in certain directions and tempos and the ability to act in a changing environment, showing the necessary dexterity and speed in movements for this. The development of these skills is facilitated by exercises in throwing and catching a ball, jumping over a long rope and games.

Starting from the first grade, children develop confidence and self-possession (for example, when performing exercises in balance at height, in deep and high jumps). In games, children master the initial skills of purposeful actions in a team, learn to overcome confusion, uncertainty, and sometimes fear of active actions required by the rules of the game.

In grade II, work continues on the development of the muscular system as a whole. For this purpose, as well as in the first grade, general developmental exercises with elements of effort, climbing on a gymnastic wall and a bench are used. In this class, the task is to develop children's ability to make quick movements on a signal, on command, to combine speed with agility, especially in a changing environment. The development of these skills is achieved in games with running at speed ("who is faster") and with

dodging, jumping rope, overcoming obstacles by jumping, climbing.

In this regard, the task is to develop children's ability to quickly navigate the situation, overcome difficulties and obstacles in the performance of the task, and just as in the first grade, attention is drawn to the education of children's ability to overcome the feeling of fear when performing physical exercises.

In games, in addition to the tasks set in the first grade, the task of educating the correct understanding of children's responsibilities towards their colleagues, to the team, the ability to coordinate their actions with the actions of a small group and understanding the importance of following the rules of the game is put forward.