

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

TEACHER'S HANDBOOK



PART 2

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УЧИТЕЛЯ



УЧ ПЕДГИЗ • 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*



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УЧИТЕЛЯ

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УЧЕБНО-ПЕДАГОГИЧЕСКОЕ ИЗДАТЕЛЬСТВО
МИНИСТЕРСТВА ПРОСВЕЩЕНИЯ РСФСР
МОСКВА • 1950*

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Part 2: BASICS OF TRAINING



GENERAL PSYCHOLOGICAL CONCEPTS AND PATTERNS

The psyche is ‘the highest product of matter organised in a special way’¹. It is a product of the activity of the brain and our entire nervous system. The nervous system with its sense organs enables us to communicate with the outside world.

Objects and phenomena of the world around us, as well as social relations of people are reflected in our consciousness. Human consciousness arose along with labour, using tools of influence on nature. Consciousness developed in close connection with the social labour activity of people.

Labour has developed such qualities of the human mind as thinking and imagination, which give a person the opportunity to foresee the results of his actions. Labour has also developed in a person strong-willed qualities, the ability to direct their activities to achieve predetermined goals. The social and labour life of a person endowed him with the highest feelings that arose and developed in the process of his social relations. With the scientific and practical knowledge of the world are associated with the intellectual feelings

¹ Lenin, Works, V. XIII, p. 45.

of a person, with the creation and perception of works of art—
aesthetic, with behaviour in society—moral.

The development of the child's personality also occurs in direct connection with his activities. For a student, his main activity is teaching.

Pseudoscience pedagogy, condemned by the resolution of the Central Committee of the CPSU (B) of July 4, 1936 "On pedagogical perversions in the system of People's Commissars", claimed that the child develops as if by itself, due to heredity and the irresistible influence of the environment. Soviet psychology and pedagogy establish that the development of a student's child is directly dependent, firstly, on the content of the educational material, which is reflected in the student's mind; secondly, on how the teacher organises and directs the student's activities in the process of learning; and thirdly, on how the school team, family and adults, in communication with whom he lives and acts, affect the student's consciousness and behaviour.

Forms of Conscious Human Activity

The human psyche is expressed in various forms of activity of the mind, feelings and will. These forms of activity are called mental processes. Such are the processes of sensation for mental activity aimed at cognition of the world.

The human psyche is expressed in various forms of activity of the mind, feelings and will. These forms of activity are called mental processes. Such are the processes of sensation, perception, memory, thinking and imagination for mental activity aimed at cognition of the world. The processes of will include aspiration, desire, and willing.

A person's feelings are very diverse. Along with the lower senses associated with organic life-nutrition, protection of the body's life, etc., a person also has higher senses: intellectual, moral, and aesthetic qualities.

Mental processes are different forms of reflection of reality and always take place in a specific human activity.

A person perceives objects and phenomena of the external world, as well as is aware of the state of his body, the movement of his body organs and its position. Perception is carried out due to the influence on the nervous system through the sensory organs of objects of the external world, states of the body, body movements, The eye, ear, olfactory apparatus, taste, skin sensitivity, muscle, internal organic sensitivity participate in perception. They give a person sensations —cold and heat, colours, musical tones, smells, touch, heaviness, a person's own movements, hunger or satiation, etc. Traces of nervous excitements caused by the influence of objects and phenomena of the external world on the nervous system, as well as our organic states and movements are stored in our brain. This gives us the opportunity to reproduce what we have received in perceptions and sensations, and to renew it in memory even when these influences of the external world have already disappeared.

However, human consciousness is not limited to simply reproducing what happened in a particular experience. We process our experience, generalise the objects and phenomena we perceive, and form concepts. So, for example, we can talk not about school No. 1 or No. 17, but about school in general, not about the apple tree in our garden, but about the apple tree in general, and so on. In our life experience, we notice connections, dependencies between objects and phenomena of reality, as well as the results of our impact on nature. For example, we determine the dependence of the potato crop on tillage and then express this in the proposition: the potato crop depends on loosening the soil, on hoeing. This activity of consciousness that generalises and establishes connections and relations between objects and phenomena of the world is called thinking in the strict scientific and psychological sense of the word.

For a concrete representation of something that we didn't perceive directly, for example, to represent a geographical

landscape of a place that we didn't see, an event in a historical story, and so on, we need the work of imagination. The activity of creative imagination is also necessary for a person when he intends to create a thing that he has not seen before or did not exist at all.

The life of our feelings, or, as they are otherwise called, emotions, arises due to the fact that a person is not dispassionate, not indifferent to what he perceives, remembers or thinks about. Emotions express a person's attitude to things, people, events, etc., whether positive or negative. We admire the exploits of our people at the front and in the rear, despise skinheads and loafers, love our homeland and hate its enemies, and so on. Even the simplest impressions—a clean or dirty table, well or poorly prepared food, etc.—cause us feelings of pleasure or displeasure.

Volitional processes are directly related to our activities. In order to manifest any activity, you need to experience the desire for it; in order to achieve something in life, overcoming obstacles and difficulties, you need to strongly want it, you need to use effort.

Especially among the mental processes and properties of the human psyche is the activity of attention. It seems to permeate all forms of our consciousness. By selecting only certain objects and phenomena or their properties through attention in the process of perception, a person learns them more clearly. By engaging in the work of memory, attention helps assimilation and recall. By participating in solving problems and issues that require thinking, attention helps to solve them as quickly as possible. Accompanying the expression of feelings, it can strengthen the experienced feeling, if you focus on its subject. It also helps you better perform work that requires physical actions.

The teacher should always remember that at any given moment of our life and activities, all or almost all forms of consciousness are closely interrelated, as different aspects of the conscious life of the human person.

As an example, let's analyse how children listen to a teacher's reading or story. This process should be called perception according to its predominant moment, according to its main character. But

isn't it necessary for the student to make a strong-willed effort, to strain his attention, so that the perception is clear and distinct? Is it possible to perceive without understanding the content of what is being read or told, without understanding the meaning of words, the connection of thoughts, i.e. without the work of thinking? Is it possible to understand without remembering the meaning of previously learned words, i.e. without relying on memory? Often, the student has to imagine what is said in the story, but what he has never seen. So he must use his imagination. Finally, the student's ability to understand what he is listening to will cause him a sense of intellectual satisfaction, and, conversely, a difficult and incomprehensible story will cause displeasure and boredom. In a literary, artistic or historical story, emotions will be evoked by the actions of the persons in question: a noble act, heroism will cause moral satisfaction, admiration; meanness, treason will arouse indignation.

Thus, the teacher, acting on the student, deals with his entire personality. However, the mental processes in the student's activity do not represent a cohesive unity. In each individual manifestation of the student's personality, certain mental processes can occur with more or less force and have different significance for his activity.

In order to properly direct this activity, the teacher needs to clearly understand the essential signs of mental processes and the basic laws of mental life.

Perception

Cognitive work of a person, as mentioned above, begins with the perception of objects and phenomena of the surrounding reality.

In the learning process, cognition also comes from perception, but organized and directed by the teacher. In this case, the perception of the objects of study or their images is usually accompanied and supplemented by the explanation of the teacher.

The teacher's story and explanation are often directly the source of knowledge. The assimilation of knowledge also requires the perception of the educational material contained in the book - a textbook, an anthology. In the learning process, perception is carried out mainly through visual and auditory sensations. When a teacher at a lesson or on an excursion introduces children directly to the subject of study, for example, to minerals, then, together with vision, tactile-motor sensations are also an instrument of cognition. In chemical experiments, the formation of certain substances is recognized 69 by smell, that is, by means of the sense of smell. An excursion to a forest or a field in summer will require the participation of all senses.

One of the conditions for conscious perception in general, and in the learning process in particular, is preparation for it. Preparation consists in reproducing in the mind of the student the knowledge acquired earlier and somehow connected with what the student will have to perceive again.

In psychology, the influence on the perception of the available stock of knowledge or ideas about the subject is called apperception. It explains to a large extent that the same subject or phenomenon is perceived differently by people with different professional experience. Apperception, or the influence of the stock of ideas on perception, in children to a certain extent determines the success of perception of educational material. To prepare the student for the perception of new material-this means to cause him the appropriate apperception. In Soviet psychology, apperception is understood not only as the influence of the stock of representations on the perception of reality, but also as the participation in this perception of a certain emotional-volitional attitude to cognitive material. This explains the need to explain to children the vital meaning of what they are about to perceive.

One of the factors of successful perception is the organisation and design of the material to be perceived: a clear display of the object of study or its image, clarity and consistency of presentation, skilful placement of notes on the blackboard, etc.

Since perception is based on sensations, the most important condition for successful, complete and accurate perception is the participation of various sensory organs in it, depending on the object of perception.

The verbal designation of what is perceived is essential for the definiteness of perception.

Correct verbal designation is possible only with comprehension of perception, i.e. with the assignment of the object to a certain class, genus or species. Perception is necessarily associated with understanding, with the attraction of previous experience to perception, i.e., with the work of memory, as well as with the generalisation of this experience, i.e., with the work of thinking.

Finally, the success of perception largely depends on the installation for subsequent reproduction. Viewing collections or exhibitions can leave very vague traces in the mind of the perceiver, if the task is not to tell someone what was perceived, and, on the contrary, perception becomes active, if you need to give an account, tell about what was perceived. True, here we are already talking about the assimilation of the perceived, i.e., memorisation, but memorisation (i.e., the work of memory) begins with perception.

Long-term, purposeful perception is called observation. The duration of perception is determined by the complexity of the observed object or phenomenon, or by the fact that it is necessary to perceive a process that takes place over time.

The success of observing a complex object depends on a clear knowledge of what needs to be observed, on an awareness of the purpose of observation. This goal defines what are called observation categories or viewpoints in the observation.

In the perception of a complex story, you can set a number of tasks: to master the main plot, content, character of the characters, the order of presentation, language features, etc.

For the education of observation skills, that is, first of all, for the development of completeness of perception and observation, it is very important to teach children to keep in mind the main goal and individual tasks in the perception and observation of various objects

and phenomena. To train the accuracy of perception and observation, it is necessary, in case of errors in verbal or written information.

The perception of objects and phenomena in the real world does not disappear without a trace. In our consciousness, so-called sequential images can be reproduced again, although we do not directly feel the objects and phenomena that we once perceived. Objects and phenomena reproduced in consciousness, once perceived by us, are called representations. The ideas that exist in our consciousness are not isolated from each other, but are connected to each other. Usually, one representation entails another either because both objects or phenomena were perceived simultaneously (association by adjacency), or because they are similar (association by similarity), or, conversely, because they are different, opposite to each other (association by contrast). The process of reproducing what was previously perceived by a person, his past experience, is called memory.

Memory

When characterising memory, it is essential to know the difference between the two main processes in which its activity manifests itself: reproduction and recognition. The impression of a previously perceived object, phenomenon, or word is reproduced when it is no longer in front of us; the impression is recognised when the previously perceived object is presented again. Of course, it's easier to learn than to reproduce.

The process of memorisation is different: sometimes an object that is vividly perceived and strongly affected our feelings is immediately and permanently imprinted. But most often, repeated perception is required for memorisation.

The processes of reproduction and recognition are also carried out differently. Sometimes a learned rule, definition, name, or number immediately pops up in our minds, or we immediately recognise the image of an object, a portrait, or who that person is;

sometimes we have to remember what we have learned or seen before, using considerable effort to do so.

To properly understand the activity of memory, we need to take into account the variety of material that we have to memorise. In psychology, it is customary to distinguish the following types of memory: memory for movements (or motor memory), memory for feelings (or emotional), memory for things, objects, their properties and phenomena (or figurative), memory for thoughts about connections, relationships between objects and phenomena (or verbal-logical). Different people may have different degrees of memory development.

What factors determine the success of memory?

First of all, the success of memorisation and subsequent reproduction in memory depends on the observance of conditions that ensure the proper quality of perception. After all, as mentioned above, the work of memory begins with perception. Therefore, the necessary preparation for perception, the presence of sufficient attention during perception, good design of the material, participation in the perception of various sensory organs, setting for subsequent reproduction, etc., i.e. everything that makes perception successful, affects the success of memorisation.

But there are also special conditions for successful memory operation. Among them, the main place belongs to repetition. 'Repetition is the mother of learning'—this old proverb has not lost its meaning now. Repetition can be mechanical or conscious. Mechanical, passive repetition is usually not very effective. Repetition must be preceded by an understanding of the meaning of what is perceived.

There are several provisions that determine the success of repetitions. One of them concerns the number of repetitions. This number is determined by the volume and degree of difficulty of the memorised material. But it is always necessary, in addition to those repetitions that have already led to the reproduction of the material, immediately after memorising, to make a few more repetitions to fix the memorised material in memory. It has been

established that it is impractical to pile up a large number of repetitions in one, so to speak, memorisation session; repetitions must be distributed over time. At the same time, it has been experimentally established that forgetting, the disappearance from memory, occurs faster in the period immediately following memorisation. Therefore, it is necessary to use repetitions for fixing first of all when the material has not yet disappeared from memory, and take a break in repetitions when the material is sufficiently firmly fixed.

For successful memorisation, it has the knowledge and amount of memorised material. For rote memorisation (for example, numbers, names), the amount of material should be limited more than for meaningful memorisation. We should strive to make sure that, if possible, even the material that at first glance can only be memorised mechanically is understood. Meaningful memorisation significantly reduces the number of repetitions you need to remember.

When memorising material that is a logically complete whole, for example, when memorising a poem by heart, it is not advisable to immediately break it into parts. You must first read it the whole poem, understand its content, then read it several times in its entirety, and only after that, when self-checking, turn to repeating poorly learned parts.

It should not be forgotten that the development of memory in children largely depends on the methods of work of the teacher. Experience shows that students successfully reproduce without repetition immediately after reading the phrase they just read or heard, if they are warned that there will be no repetition and that they should read or listen to the material very carefully. The volume of material for such direct reproduction can be gradually increased.

Memory allows us to learn and consolidate not only knowledge, but also skills, i.e. the ability to perform certain actions (in school practice—actions related to reading, counting, writing, etc.).

One of the factors of successful skill formation is showing an action, explaining how and how to properly perform it. Constant

exercises are very important for skill development. At the same time, it is necessary to prevent errors and shortcomings and inform the person performing the exercise about the results of their work. If there are errors, indicate the means to correct them.

Thinking

What is the essence of the process of thinking that leads to generalisation, that is, the formation of concepts expressed in one word or a group of words, and reveals the connections, relations between objects and phenomena expressed in judgments?

Lenin, characterizing the main path of human cognitive activity, pointed out that knowledge proceeds from living, concrete contemplation to abstract thinking, and from it to practice. The formation of general concepts, which is one of the main features of thinking, requires, first of all, comparison, establishment of similarities and differences between objects and phenomena of the reality we perceive. In this case, it is usually necessary to perform a mental analysis, i.e., either to divide an object into parts (for example, plants — into a root, stem, leaves, flower), or to highlight certain properties, signs — colour, size, shape, etc. This selection of a certain property or attribute common to a number of objects requires a process of abstraction or abstraction from the object as a whole.

When forming a concept about some object or phenomenon, which includes a number of features common to all objects or phenomena of a given group or, as we say, a class, it is often required to link these features or properties into a single whole, i.e., to make a connected with analysis the process of mental synthesis. Thus, the concept of a certain geographical area may contain signs of climate, vegetation, etc. Synthesizing (and at the same time analysing) work of thinking is also required when understanding the meaning of the text being read, the conditions of the problem, etc.

We can also obtain judgments about objects and phenomena with the help of perception (this wall is white, this tree is a birch), but the work of thinking is characterized by those judgments that we receive not directly, but with the help of inferences. Inferences sometimes generalize a number of our specific observations (for example, 'bodies expand from heating'), sometimes they are the result of our general knowledge about this particular case (for example, 'grass is covered with dew in the morning, which means that the night was cold').

The process of forming judgments that establish the causal relationship between phenomena is closely connected with the formation of concepts in which the essential features of phenomena are fixed.

A girl of early preschool age, pouring water on her beloved puppy and explaining to her mother why she was doing it ("I want him to grow bigger"), made a peculiar conclusion: she saw her mother watering flowers, and when she asked why the mother does it, received a similar explanation. But her conclusion was wrong because she had not formed the concepts of "plant" and "animal".

We obtain knowledge of essential connections between phenomena in the course of our practical activity. This knowledge allows us to anticipate the results of action and purposefully organize our activities. We establish that tillage and fertilization improve crops, and we take these actions.

For the independent work of our thinking, it is essential that it begins with a question, and the decision leading to a judgment may begin with an assumption related to the knowledge that our memory stores. We test the assumption by observation, by analysing what we observe, by our actions, and often move on to other assumptions. The plant died either because there was a poor-quality seed, or because the soil was not fertilized, or because there were unfavourable conditions for the action of sunlight, etc. The moment of posing the question is also important for understanding the work of thinking already done by others. , which received

expression in a certain text: what is said in this segment of the text, what connection is established, how it is justified, etc.

It must not be forgotten that thinking, operating with concepts, cannot do without the word. The image of an object, plant, animal int. etc., which we cannot name, may emerge in our minds without a word; but a concept that generalizes a whole group or class of objects and phenomena requires a word. The ability to correctly name an object already indicates the ability of children to attribute this object to a certain group, class, i.e., the ability to operate with concepts. And the whole development of thinking is closely connected with the development of speech. If a thought is not expressed in a distinct verbal judgment, it does not develop. Speech is not only a means of communicating thoughts to another, but also an instrument of thinking. Hence the great importance of speech in the process of educational work. Already during perception and observation, for example, when showing a picture, it is necessary that children correctly name what is depicted on it; when performing arithmetic operations, naming the latter is also essential for their comprehension.

Imagination

In the course of the activity of the imagination, we create images or representations of what we have never perceived.

Imagination plays an important role in the learning process. A geographical description or a historical narrative will be truly understood only if the activity of the so-called reproducing or recreating imagination takes effect in children. With the help of imagination, children will be able to imagine the characters of an artistic and literary work, their actions and relationships. Reading any article, whether it is a description of nature or a story about an event, will be meaningful only if the teacher, with his story or with the help of illustrations, will be able to trigger the student's imagination, which will create vivid images of what is described or what is being told. The material for the imagination, of course, is the

representations that are present in the child's experience, but the representations of the imagination will give a more or less peculiar combination of them.

Imagination plays a big role in the child's creative activity, in his drawings, independent writing of stories, in his technical creativity. Here, transformative, creative imagination or fantasy often creates images of what is not yet real and what is embodied in the products of children's activities.

Later—in the life of a teenager—dreams about 'what I want to do, who I want to be' can have an impact on all the future activities of a growing person.

In the development of children's imagination is of great importance, first, as the teacher directs the work of children's imagination, and secondly, as it enriches the perception and memory, based on the activity of the imagination, and, thirdly, it ensures the development of those skills necessary for the realisation of images creative imagination in the products of activity: the ability to own it, it is good to build your own story, the ability to control the pencil to create a drawing, the ability to control the tool to create plans and available in the form of a mental image of the subject.

Emotions or Feelings

In the emotional life of a person, as indicated above, there are so-called lower feelings, closely related to the life of the body, and higher—intellectual, aesthetic and moral. The latter are especially important in the development of a person's personality.

Intellectual feelings arise in connection with cognitive activity. The desire to know the unknown, uncover the secrets of nature and penetrate the laws of social phenomena is associated with a sense of curiosity and interest in knowledge, to study. In the very process of cognition, an unsolved question, problem, and uncertainty about the correctness of their solution cause a sense of doubt, and confidence, on the contrary, a sense of intellectual satisfaction.

Aesthetic feelings are related to the perception of beauty in nature, in art, in life. They consist in enjoying a beautiful painting, a piece of sculpture or architecture, a wonderful performance of a musical or scenic work.

In the series of aesthetic feelings, feelings of the sublime, tragic, comic, etc. are distinguished.

The content of moral feelings, as well as the moral behaviour with which they are associated, was clearly defined by V. I. Lenin. Responding to the statement of the bourgeois scribblers (at the very beginning of construction) Lenin pointed out that “the Bolsheviks do not recognise any morality,” and that the Bolsheviks did indeed deny morality as it was preached by the bourgeoisie, a morality derived from the dictates of God. “Morality is what serves to destroy the old exploitative society and unite all working people around the proletariat, which is creating a new society of communists.

Communist morality is the morality that serves this struggle...”¹

From this we draw certain conclusions about the content of moral feelings. In our socialist state, moral or socio-political feelings are feelings of duty to defend the motherland and work, a sense of Soviet patriotism and national pride, a sense of comradeship towards those who follow the same path as us, a sense of socialist humanism.

What conditions or factors contribute to the development of feelings in the process of education and training?

First of all, if the teacher and parents have the feelings that should be developed in the child, the future citizen of the Soviet state, and their clear and sincere expression in their activities, Love for the motherland, for knowledge, for work, for their people, if they exist and are manifested in the actions of the teacher at school, and parents in the family, naturally infect children. But these same feelings are stunted, do not develop in children, if children do not see an example, a role model.

¹ Lenin, Works, vol. XXX, pp. 411-412.

The most important factor in the development of feelings is the care of the teacher, educator about their consciousness and effectiveness. Feeling is a relation to the phenomena of reality, connected with activity.

It is necessary to provide material to arouse children's curiosity, raise questions about the life of nature and society, and awaken the desire to resolve these issues. By organising children's cognitive and intellectual activities, the teacher will develop their intellectual feelings.

It is necessary to give the child the opportunity to see a good painting or a copy of it, a beautiful work of sculpture or architecture or its image, to hear a beautiful performance of a musical or vocal work, to watch a good movie or theatrical performance in order to awaken a sense of beauty, aesthetic or artistic enjoyment. The immediate feeling needs to be saturated further with an understanding of what is beautiful in a painting, beautiful in a work of art, in an actor's performance, etc., i.e., to develop in children the ability of artistic evaluation, aesthetic judgment. And, finally, it is necessary to encourage children's own artistic activity—in drawing, singing, reading literary and artistic works, etc.

The importance of consciousness and effectiveness, as the main conditions for the development of feelings, should also be taken into account by the teacher in ideological, political and moral education. Using historical and contemporary material to show why we love our motherland and how we can discover and prove this love in our activities is one of the means of educating conscious Soviet patriotism. Showing noble comradesly deeds and organising assistance to a friend if he needs it is a means of cultivating a sense of friendship and camaraderie, etc.

Volition

Human feelings are closely related to activity. Volitional action that arises from the needs and interests of a person is characterised by the consciousness of the goal set and the ways to achieve it, as

well as the presence of volitional effort. The latter is partly due to overcoming obstacles, internal or external, that stand in the way of achieving the goal: you need to learn a lesson, but you want to sleep or there is a loud conversation in the room. Depending on how clearly we are aware of the goals of our activity and the ways to achieve them, various volitional processes arise, which could be called stages of the volitional act. From the desire, for example, to learn foreign languages in general, we move on to the desire to learn a particular language. In our desire and intention, we are already mapping out the ways of our actions: to find well-known manuals, to allocate time for work, to find an opportunity to practice foreign speech, etc.

In a complex volitional action, when several goals arise in the mind or different ways of achieving them are possible, it is necessary to make a choice and come to a decision that is carried out. For example, a student often has the question of whether to respond to a friend's call and go for a walk, or do a given homework; whether to solve a problem on their own, do an exercise, or copy them from a friend. In this case, there is usually a struggle of rational motives, emotional motives, interests: anticipation of the pleasure of playing or walking with a sense of duty, responsibility for the assigned work; the desire to relax with fear of possible censure, a bad mark, etc.

Psychology considers the main qualities of a developed strong will to be: willpower in a narrow sense, i.e. the ability to overcome obstacles on the way to achieving the goal; perseverance — the ability to overcome obstacles for a long time and to urgently fulfill the goal; criticality or independence in choosing a decision, which is the opposite of suggestibility, submission, instructions and blind imitation of the actions of others; principledness, i.e. subordination of a decision to certain moral beliefs, principles, and not emotional random impulses; determination, i.e. quick choice of the right action, the right path. It should also be noted such an important quality of will as initiative, i.e. the desire to set a task or goal yourself, without waiting for instructions from others.

We must not forget that the will manifests itself not only in actions, but also in abstinence from them. Strong-willed effort is often required in order not to commit an act that contradicts one's own beliefs and can cause public condemnation.

When volitional actions and actions begin to be subordinated to moral goals and are associated with an awareness of the main life goals, ideals, i.e. with a socio-political worldview, we are talking about character formation. Character develops in the process of practical activity, in the process of struggle for the realisation of the social ideal. Bolshevik education is associated with a communist worldview, with a selfless dedication to the cause of Lenin and Stalin, and with a sense of the need to work for the building of a communist society. The Bolshevik character includes certain traits: courage, perseverance and inflexibility in the struggle to achieve the set goal, perseverance in overcoming obstacles, comradely attitude towards those who strive for the same goal, sincerity and truthfulness in actions and words, i.e. their full compliance with beliefs, as well as correct critical self - assessment, which determines the continuous development of a person's personality.

In the development of the will in the process of teaching and upbringing, one should strive to combine initiative with useful habits. The development of initiative is associated with the expansion of mental horizons, the development of curiosity, and the development of interests. The orientation of interests and the content of habits depend on the worldview and understanding of the essence of communist morality, on the development of the ability to evaluate correctly. your own behaviour and the behaviour of others.

The following conditions are necessary for the development of habits: awareness of the need to develop a certain useful habit (for example, the student should do homework at certain hours, bring the preparation of the lesson to the end) and the determination to work in this direction; using each occasion to perform the action to be habituated, and implementing the decision to never deviate from the intended goal of creating this or that useful habit.

On the way from initiative to habit creation is the development of the ability to volitional effort. Here, as a prerequisite, an important role is played by the teacher's choice of tasks available for children to perform, which would help to strengthen their self-confidence, and then a gradual increase in the volume and difficulty of these tasks and the exercise in their implementation.

Attention

Attention occupies a special place among the forms of consciousness and processes of mental activity. It seems to express the degree of consciousness of perception, memorisation. It also participates in one way or another in any, even the simplest work. It is customary to distinguish between passive, or involuntary attention, and active, or voluntary. The first is determined by the strength or brightness of the impression itself during perception, by a direct interest in the task or question, the second—by effort, willpower.

Such a division of the types of attention is to a certain extent conditional: in reality, one type of attention often passes into another. An unusual phenomenon that aroused our immediate interest in its unusualness, when we begin to study it, already requires efforts of voluntary attention, and vice versa: making efforts to start listening to a story or reading a book, we, having become interested in the content of what we perceive, then without efforts to maintain attention.

Among the features of attention, it should be noted: the limitedness of its volume, i.e., the number of simultaneously grasped impressions; gradual adaptation of attention in the process of being drawn into work; some limits to the stability of attention, i.e., the ability to keep it at the same height during continuous work; fluctuations in attention the same period of mental activity; and the difficulty of dividing attention between different experiences or between different activities, even when the latter are related to each other (it is difficult to simultaneously consider subject, diagram

and listen to a verbal explanation for them, listen and write down, etc.). Meanwhile, in a number of types of complex activities, the distribution of attention is of great importance, and the teacher needs to develop children's attention in this direction as well.

From the point of view of training and education, it is most important to know the factors, causes or conditions that cause and maintain attention.

The teacher is faced with the task of developing in children the highest form of attention, that is, voluntary attention, which will enable them to perform difficult and sometimes uninteresting work. However, the connection between the two types of attention — involuntary and voluntary — not only does not allow one to ignore the factors that determine the occurrence of involuntary attention, but also forces one to proceed from them in resolving the specified problem.

A very important condition in order to cause involuntary attention is the brightness of the impression. A beautiful picture, an expressive reading of a literary and artistic work, a well-conducted experience will inevitably arouse involuntary attention associated with direct interest, that is, a feeling of pleasure from their perception. But the very exercise of children in examining the picture and listening to the teacher's story, causing the work of their thoughts, is one of the ways of the gradual development of stable voluntary attention.

Another condition for calling and maintaining attention is a change of impressions. However, the use of this factor in the learning process must be approached very carefully. We should not forget about the gradual adaptability of attention. Only with various forms of work aimed at achieving the same goal, for example, at mastering the order of performing a certain arithmetic Action, the introduction of this factor in the process of educational work has a positive value.

It is known that the novelty of impressions is one of the reasons for attention. But at the same time, psychology asserts that the presence of the familiar in the new material creates the ground for

the emergence of attention in the perception of new material. This circumstance once again confirms the need to precede the communication of new knowledge by repeating what has been learned, and also to evoke appropriate ideas from students' life observations before studying new material.

The connection of the material that we perceive, remember, or reflect on with life tasks, as well as the awareness of the vital practical significance of the work we do, determines increased attention and interest in mental activity, even if it requires considerable effort from us.

Therefore, it is very important sometimes to point out to children the practical significance of the knowledge or skills they receive, that they may need them later. This creates a so-called indirect interest: the work here is interesting not directly, but through the medium of the goal for which the results of this work may be needed.

In some connection with the activity of attention are those properties of the human psyche, which are called imitation and suggestion. If we carefully look at the movements of a swinging pendulum, then after a while our head and torso will begin to make barely noticeable swinging movements; when we notice that one or two people have approached a newspaper window, a poster or an announcement pasted on the wall, we are "tugged" to join them and also start reading or viewing; if one person in the room yawns, the others begin to yawn too. This striving to reproduce, to repeat the action observed and aroused attention is called imitation. At school, the object of imitation is, first of all, the actions of the teacher—the person who has the greatest authority, causing the greatest attention in children; but the actions of comrades, of course, constantly arouse imitation. The mere expression of a thought about any action can cause the listener (to inspire him) with the desire to perform this action. The power of suggestibility is especially great in young children.

THE PSYCHE OF CHILDREN AND ITS DEVELOPMENT IN THE PROCESS OF LEARNING

Knowledge of the general patterns of human mental activity creates a preliminary basis for determining the characteristics of the psyche of children of primary school age.

The psychological characteristics of the child, the level of development of his personality are determined both by how the child is taught and raised at school, and by the influence of the family and the environment on him.

One must be very critical of those characteristics of the psychological characteristics of individual age periods, which are given by representatives of foreign psychology, who do not take into account the historical changes taking place in the mental make-up of the child.

The most superficial observations show how the personality of Soviet children grows and changes under the conditions of the new social system, how psychologically the content of their consciousness, focus of attention and interests, purposefulness differ from what is characteristic of children living and developing under the conditions of the capitalist system.

With a general description of primary school age, it should be borne in mind that this age lies between the preschool and adolescence periods and thus embraces the years from 7 to 11-12.

A primary school teacher needs to know what a child from a family or kindergarten comes to him with, to know the main features of the psychology of a pre-schooler, since a seven-year-old who enters school retains some mental characteristics of preschool age.

The psychology of a preschooler is determined to a large extent by what constitutes the main content of his activity—play.

In the game, the child enters into an active relationship with the outside world. The content of the game comes from the reproduction of the activities of adults, the one that the child directly observes or with which he hears in the stories of adults and older children.

The game develops the personality of the child: his ability to learn the objects with which he deals, his feelings, will. In the so-called story games, children have a certain desire to set a certain goal for themselves, to achieve it, and in their experiences associated with the game, the feelings of the persons they depict are born.

In the game, the child also develops some skills depending on what he has to deal with: the ability to handle things, sometimes build something, etc. In addition, the preschool child receives some business assignments from adults that are not related to only with 'self-service' - food, dressing, etc., but also with a certain help to adults in everyday life, which also develops skills.

At older preschool age, activities organised in the family or in kindergarten, such as drawing, modelling, learning poetry, etc., along with the awakening of an aesthetic sense, also enrich children with knowledge and skills.

All these forms of activity create in a preschool child the ability to make some volitional efforts.

Pedagogical influence, together with imitation of adults, contributes to the formation of habits of both an individual and a social nature: to keep the body and dress clean, things in order, to treat peers and adults in this way and not otherwise, to show a certain restraint in behaviour.

Observations of preschool children during their communication with friends, analysis of their statements, attempts to talk with them as with adults, reveal that at older preschool age children already have initial forms of self-awareness associated with an assessment of both their own actions and the actions of others.

The playful life of a preschool child naturally requires almost continuous movements, so a child of this age rarely remains in a

calm state. It comes only when the child listens to a fairy tale or a story, or when he draws or builds.

Psychophysical Characteristics of Children of 7 Years of Age

The psychophysical development of seven-year-old children entering school is very different. However, some features typical of this period of childhood can be indicated.

On the physical side, the following features that are essential for pedagogical conclusions should be noted. From 'losing weight' and 'stretching' the child passes to 'fullness', i.e., his growth is delayed, and his weight increases. Along with this, muscle strength also increases. Hence, in comparison with the previous period, not only does not fall, but, perhaps, the child's propensity for prolonged activity, for 'mobility' even increases. On the other hand, there is an opportunity for the child to perform some difficult operations. Children of this age can not only wipe the dust, sweep the floor, wash the dishes, but also take care of plants, work in the garden, etc.

True, when organising this kind of activity (as well as in educational work), one should not forget the significant fatigue of a seven-year-old child, due to excessive excitability of the heart.

It is necessary to give vent to the child's natural, organic desire for movement—do not forbid, for example, children after almost motionless sitting during the lesson to play and run during breaks. But it must be taken into account that the movements of a child at this age are not yet ordered, not organised, and in the disorderly running of children, collisions, falls, etc. are inevitable. Hence, special attention is required to the organisation during changes of short-term outdoor games that bring up dexterity and accuracy of movements.

Play activity in the lives of seven-year-old children, as well as older pre-schoolers, occupies a large place. Children show a desire for outdoor games of a plot nature with the distribution of roles and

the requirement to follow the rules. At the same time, the plot of the game is borrowed not only from directly perceived reality, but also from stories heard from adults, and sometimes it is a product of the children's own invention.

By the time the child enters school, in terms of quantitative growth, it approaches the brain of an adult, which determines the child's ability for mental work, for learning. In the activities of the previous period (sculpting, drawing, etc.), the development of the small muscles of the fingers of the hand already reaches such a degree that it makes it possible to move on to mastering the movements of writing. The development of the child's abilities for drawing and modelling is noted.

A seven-year-old child already has a certain desire for learning at school. He goes to school with the desire to learn to read and write, although he still does not quite clearly understand the nature and content of school life and activities. It would be wrong at the beginning of the lessons to delay the fulfilment of this desire and delay the onset of 'learning', devoting lessons only to conversations about the school, about the rules of conduct, free drawing or free stories of children. This does not satisfy young schoolchildren and c03- gives some disappointment.

Education, of course, requires a certain stage in the development of perception, based on sensations and the stock of knowledge and ideas that the child already has.

Interest in the knowledge of objects and phenomena of reality becomes more stable in the child at this time: curiosity and the desire to observe, "explore" intensify. But there is still no developed ability to analyse objects and phenomena, to notice details, to highlight the main thing. Sometimes a child notices only scattered details in an object or picture. Hence the shortcomings in reproducing from memory: in the story of a picture just viewed, often part of the testimony is incorrect or inaccurate. This requires the teacher to do considerable work in the field of educating children's perception and observation.

Attention acquires, in comparison with preschool age, greater stability, but the child can still listen to only a short story of the teacher, and his attention for the most part rests on direct interest. Hence the requirement to change the forms of activity in the lesson: reading should turn into a story, connect with a conversation, and then end with a sketch or a letter from children. The amount of attention is insufficient: a question addressed to the class, a phrase or sentence for repetition, a condition of the task—only if they are short and slow in the tempo of the sentence can be successfully perceived by children. The ability to distribute attention even between activities directed at the same object is especially weak. If you need to write off the board, then first you need to let the children clearly perceive, read what is written (and maybe more than once), and then offer to write it off.

The thinking of a seven-year-old child is concrete. Therefore, in the lessons in the first grade, it is necessary to especially widely use various kinds of visual aids. Compared with the previous preschool age, the thinking of a seven-year-old schoolboy is more likely to break away from a directly perceived object or phenomenon, and the child can operate with words that evoke mental images from his past experience. However, the stock of ideas about reality, about what the child saw in the room, on the street, in the garden and garden, in the field, etc., is still very small. In addition, these ideas are insufficiently complete and distinct due to the indicated features of observation and reproduction from memory in children of seven years of age. Therefore, always there is a danger that the child does not understand the heard word in the right way, and constant verification of the correctness of the ideas that the child associates with individual words heard on lessons, but not supported by a visual illustration (in the form of objects or pictures). And even visual material related to objects and phenomena of reality that are little known to the child, can be perceived by him, or rather, understood incorrectly.

Hence the need arises to evoke the speech of the child himself as often as possible, especially since children of seven years of age

are already able to give a description of a familiar object, and not just a monosyllabic definition of it by purpose or location (“an ax is chopped”, “an apple tree is in the garden”), as is usually the case with pre-schoolers. True, the stock of words, as well as ideas, in children of this age is still small: an average of 2000 words, of which about half are designations of objects (nouns), about one third of the names of actions (verbs) and less than one tenth are designations of qualities or properties of objects. (adjectives).

In his behaviour, a seven-year-old child is by no means limited to impulsive actions determined only by elementary emotions (feelings associated with nutritional needs, a feeling of pleasure from bright visual and loud sound impressions, emotions of fear and anger, etc.), it greatly increases conscious, purposeful actions.

Estimates given by the teacher to the student’s oral responses in the class, his written work, as well as his actions, his behaviour, contribute to the development of value judgments that appeared in the previous period.

The transition from the family and even kindergarten to school creates a significant change in the conditions that determine not only the acquisition of knowledge and mental development of the child, but also the development of his emotional-volitional life, his behaviour, his personality as a whole.

The first appearance at school, unusual impressions associated with the requirement of strictly disciplined behavior in the classroom, cause a child of this age (in most cases) to feel timidity and shyness, create a state of some ‘stiffness’ in him.

The attention of the child in the first lessons is usually occupied exclusively by the words and actions of the teacher; due to the limited scope of this attention, or rather, a weak ability to distribute attention, he still “does not see” his comrades, does not always hear their answers. He does not yet feel like a member of a class team. The student does not perceive the requirements for certain actions addressed by the teacher to the class in the first days as addressed to him. He expects an individual appeal to himself directly, and only with such an appeal fulfils the demand. Children of seven years of

age often show an inability to fulfil the simplest requirements: to get up when the teacher addresses them with questions and when answering them, to sit down and get up without noise, etc. It is often necessary not only to remind them of a well-known rule, but also to show how fulfil it. The weakness of memory for what the child is not directly interested in causes forgetting the rules, requiring their frequent reminders. The reminder must necessarily be associated with the performance of the required action in order for the corresponding habit to be developed. Encouraging evaluation of correct actions is also of great importance.

Having got used to the school environment a little, the child begins to notice his comrades. Closer communication with them usually occurs during breaks, when the student feels freer both in movements and in actions.

Attention to comrades and the tendency to imitate inherent in all young children make him not only during the break, but also in the classroom, often reproduce such actions of comrades that are a violation of discipline—a loud exclamation, laughter, etc. In vain, sometimes the teacher tries to stop the noise with loud shouts: he himself becomes one of the main objects of imitation, and the noise can increase even more. A calm, if possible, quiet, but quite distinct speech of the teacher will be a good example for children.

As one of the means of accustoming children to disciplined behaviour in the classroom, many teachers use “minutes of silence”, just like “exercise minutes” are used as a means of discharging the build-up while sitting still in the lessons of children’s desire for movement.

Considering the easy suggestibility of a young schoolchild, the teacher should not react to the wrong actions and misconduct of children with verbose arguments about these misconduct and emphasise the child’s indiscipline: “What a naughty you are!” Much more useful will bring positive instructions about what to do, how to behave, and calm perseverance in demanding the implementation of these instructions.

Classroom cohesion and the development in each student of the desire to strive for overall academic performance and good behaviour are facilitated by the teacher's periodic assessment of the work and success of the entire class, careful indication that such and such students are still preventing the class from achieving greater success, and showing the best examples of learning tasks. Assignments to individual schoolchildren to perform certain social duties in the classroom (a member of the sanitary troika, class attendant, etc.) teach children not only to demand from their comrades the implementation of personal hygiene rules, cleanliness in the classroom, but also to obey the requirements of the one who is entrusted observation of a well-known site of class life.

The inculcation of the rules of behaviour in early childhood is carried out mainly through exercises in the actions themselves. This requires understanding, awareness of the need to comply with these rules. This is best achieved through conversations with the class about progress in learning and about fulfilling certain requirements of the teacher.

Some Features of the Psyche of Children 8-10 Years Old

In the process of further education, all forms of the mental life of the student are gradually improved, although the development of individual aspects of his psyche proceeds rather slowly. So, the attention of a schoolchild of 8-9 years old is as unstable and easily distracted as that of a seven-year-old child. Prolonged monotonous work (for example, a long reading or a very long story), as a rule, lead to a weakening of children's attention. Only by the last year of primary school does children's ability to exert more attention gradually increase.

Activity in the sense of mobility, characteristic of seven-year-olds, does not disappear in children in the future (it is enough to look at children during breaks to make sure of this). To a large

extent, it depends on the rapid pace of physical growth of children in this period.

The desire of children for mobility, as well as the instability of their attention, create certain difficulties in establishing discipline in the classroom.

A child of primary school age is already capable of straining voluntary attention, that is, attention associated with volitional effort. However, the possibility of such active attention is conditioned for the most part by the formulation of a task that requires mental effort, the work of thought.

The work of attention is found primarily in the perception of what is said, what is shown in the classroom and is largely caused by interest in the perceived.

What in the field of perception are the interests of the child at this age directed at?

Psychology emphasises, first of all, the lack of “differentiation” of interests in children of primary school age, that is, a certain, individually unique orientation of interests in individual children. It usually occurs in the next age period, sometimes at the end of primary school childhood.

An elementary school student is usually interested in “everything” that he sees, hears, can touch, etc. He listens with pleasure to an entertaining story, especially one in which there is an action that is accessible to his understanding, giving food to his concrete thinking and imagination, i.e., everything that he can visually imagine and feel. Interest in the life of nature, in the plant and animal world, develops as the organisation of observation of how plants develop, how the life of animals proceeds.

In the development of this interest, it is of great importance to involve students in the practical activities of growing plants and caring for animals.

Children are also interested in technology; it grows, as a rule, in the course of a specific activity (in this case, associated with technical classes).

In the second half of elementary school age, that is, in grades III-IV, children begin to take an interest in adventure stories, and especially in everything heroic; stories, films about the life and work of our heroes are perceived by children of this age with delight. There is thus an interest in the social life and activities of prominent Soviet people.

Perception and thinking in children of this age, as well as in younger children, is of a concrete nature.

Bourgeois psychologists tried to present the development of children's perception at this age as passing through certain stages, namely: at the age of 7 years, according to them, the child perceives individual objects in the picture (this is the objective stage), at the age of 8-9 years—faces and their actions (stage of actions), then relations between objects, for example, spatial arrangement (the stage of relations), and, finally, the qualities of objects—colour, shape, etc. (qualitative stage).

On the basis of observations and experimental studies, Soviet psychologists have proven that this assertion is incorrect, since a child already at preschool age is able to notice the qualities of a thing, especially if he operates with it, i.e., if it is included in his activity.

But in the first half of primary school childhood, perception the child may be superficial, he will often perceive the object "as a whole", not noticing many of its individual properties.

Detailed, dissected perception develops in the learning process, provided that the attention of children is consistently and systematically refers to these properties, details, if such work is called thinking as a comparison of different objects (taking the concept of "object" in the broadest sense of the word).

How can you characterise the thinking of a primary school student?

Psychologists have argued a lot about when a child's thinking develops in the strictly psychological sense of the word. The German scientist Meimann insisted that the real "logical" thinking of a child

develops only at the age of 13-14 years, and even the ability to determine hardly begins before 11-12 years.

K. D. Ushinsky in "Methodological Instructions for the "Native Word" brilliantly proved that the work of a teacher can create in a child, even during the period of primary school childhood, the ability to compare, distinguish, make definitions, etc.

Soviet psychology in experimental studies confirmed this possibility of the emergence of thinking perception in connection with activity even in preschool childhood.

A direct study of the work of schoolchildren 8-10 years old shows that, although at this age it is difficult for children to make all kinds of reasoning, establish cause-and-effect relationships when observing natural phenomena and social life, however, systematic exercises in this direction gradually develop in children the ability to reason, infer, and come to correct conclusions.

The definition of concepts by a child in the first period of primary education usually has a form that does not obey logical rules. Objects are determined by their practical purpose; a chair is "what they sit on", an axe is "what they chop", etc. But in the future, children gradually master logical definitions, i.e. the ability to indicate the kind or class of objects and their features, the differences of one object from another of the same kind, etc.

The development of their speech is of great importance for the development of thinking in children aged 8-10 years. At this age, children learn a lot of new words. Their vocabulary expands significantly, especially in connection with mastering the 'reading skill'. But at the same time, there are many words in the speech of children whose meanings they do not understand, since they often acquire these words outside of their connection with specific ideas.

The memory of a child of high school age does not require the emotional equipment of the material offered for memorisation, which is necessary at the first stages of training. But it is not yet 'organised'. A child of this age is very prone to memorise mechanically, without delving into the meaning of the memorised material. Therefore, it is necessary to systematically teach children

to memorise meaningfully, so that they first understand, and then begin to memorise.

The challenge of active work of thinking, in the form of comparison, analysis, reasoning about the connections of phenomena, about the motives of human actions, etc., leads to the fact that children themselves begin to ask questions, look for answers to them, i.e. experience feelings of doubt, and then intellectual satisfaction in getting the right answer.

The highest and most valuable motives that cause the desire to learn, to acquire knowledge, do not arise in a child immediately. At first, these motives are very elementary: simple curiosity, immediate pleasure associated with acquiring the ability to read, write, etc. Along with this, there is a fear of a bad mark, for which you can receive censure from parents, as well as a feeling of competition in getting a better mark. Later, from the observation of the environment and under the influence of the teacher, school staff and parents, the student begins to understand that a person who knows a lot, more useful to the state, homeland, enjoys the respect of others. From this grows an inner interest and a desire to acquire as much knowledge as possible that a Soviet person needs—builder of a communist society, a sense of duty grows, a consciousness of the need to study well.

The Development of the Psyche of Children in the Learning Process

The methods and techniques of the teacher, aimed at the conscious and lasting assimilation of knowledge, causing the active activity of the psyche of children, develop and improve it.

One of the main tasks facing the teacher in the classroom is to call and organise the attention of the child. According to Ushinsky, attention is the only door through which the impressions of the external world become the content of our consciousness.

In resolving the issue of the means of attracting attention, one must remember the indicated steps or types of attention, its active and passive forms. Do not neglect ways to attract involuntary attention. Among these methods, such as the brightness and strength of impressions (a good picture, an expressive teacher's reading, an entertaining story, etc.) play a major role.

The change of impressions can be used only if different types of work are concentrated around one goal, and this change of impressions in the lesson does not turn into a heap of different, unrelated activities.

In a number of cases, the creation of an emotional upsurge in children in the process of explaining educational material is of great importance for increasing attention.

But, in order to attract and maintain the attention of students in the classroom by arousing their interest in educational material, the teacher should never forget that one of his main tasks is the development of higher forms of active attention, which requires volitional effort in the perception and assimilation of knowledge and skills. In this direction, one should remember the instructions of K. D. Ushinsky: "Teaching should be entertaining for the child, but at the same time, it should require children to accurately perform and tasks that are not entertaining for them, without tilting too much in one direction or the other, giving food for passive attention and exercising active attention, which, although weak in the child, can and should develop and grow stronger from tension. Our will, like our muscles, is strengthened only by gradually increasing activity.

Of the conditions that cause the work of active attention in the lesson, first of all, it should be noted the necessity and accuracy of the tasks that the teacher gives to the children. At the same time, one should not forget that the task must be given not only to the student whom the teacher asks, but at the same time to the whole class. The best teachers not only remember this, but also monitor what each student is doing and whether he knows exactly what he needs to do at the moment of the lesson.

Let us give an example of organising the attention of the whole class in an arithmetic lesson. The teacher writes two rows of numbers on the blackboard: in the first row from 11 to 20, in the second - the numbers of the next ten. The teacher calls to the student's board and warns the class that the children should check the correctness of his work. Then he defines the problem facing the whole class: "I will indicate one number that needs to be multiplied; then another, by which it is necessary to multiply, and the third, by which the resulting product must be divided. Kolya will complete this task, and you will monitor whether he did it correctly; whoever sees wrong will raise his hand." (Numbers are given: 25, then 12 and then 15.)

You can see with what tension the student standing at the blackboard is working, and p. with what lively attention his comrades follow his work. When the result is written, the performer looks anxiously at his classmates and waits for a hand to be raised and whether his answer needs to be corrected.

Of great importance is the creation of a state of expectation in children. It also takes place in the specified example and can be called, for example, when showing a previously closed picture.

One of the means of attracting higher forms of attention in the lesson is to establish a connection between the new material communicated by the student and previously acquired knowledge. At the same time, it is necessary to attract from what is known to children what gives reference points for the perception of the new.

Already in the primary grades, it is possible to arouse in children the highest form of attention associated with needs, with interests that more deeply capture the personality. This form of attention relies on awareness of the importance of acquired knowledge for practical, life goals. Therefore, for older primary school students, it is very important to indicate the importance that the ability to read well, count, solve problems, competently and intelligently can have for them, write, etc.

The most essential to call active attention and exercise in it is such an organisation of the work of the class in which the thinking of children works—questions arise that need to be resolved.

It is also very important to set the attention of children in preparing them for a certain work. The significance of this factor obliges the teacher not to change the content of the lesson planned and already announced to the children. It also requires the teacher to indicate the content and nature of the work and at each stage of the lesson—when checking knowledge, repeating, communicating new material and consolidating knowledge.

In the process of learning, children's feelings develop, sensitivity under the condition of conscious perception by children of objects and phenomena of the surrounding reality. Properly organised by the teacher, the perception of the educational material by the children implies the widespread use of visualisation in teaching.

However, visual material will be successfully perceived by children only if it is accessible for perception (good visibility, distinctness of a drawing or picture, etc.). At the same time, one should not forget that the display must be accompanied by an accurate verbal designation. Children must correctly express in a word what they see as a whole and in separate parts of the object or picture shown to them. The difficulty of the distribution of attention requires that the explanation of what is shown was carried out in a properly organised combination with a demonstration of visual material.

If possible, you need to link the perception and verbal designation of what children perceive with their activities: sketching, writing, etc.

One of the essential conditions for successful perception is warning children before the teacher's explanation or before reading about the need for subsequent accurate and complete reproduction of the story, explanation of the content of the article, arithmetic and grammatical rules, task conditions, etc.

Completeness and accuracy of perception are also achieved by instructing children goals and points of view from which one must proceed when listening, observing, explaining the teacher, reading: what exactly needs to be caught in the story, explanation, seen in the visual material. With erroneous answers, it is necessary to again force the children to perceive the object of study or read certain places in the story, or once again read the terms of the problem, etc.

Already in the process of perception of what the teacher tells or shows, the moment of understanding, comprehension, i.e., the work of thinking of children, enters.

The formulation and resolution of the problem of the development of thinking in the learning process can take various forms. First of all, here include the methods of comparison, distinction and generalisation that the teacher uses in heuristic forms of transferring new knowledge, when children in conversation are led by the teacher to independent conclusions of certain provisions, for example, spelling or arithmetic rules. Here, the teacher is required that texts for analysis, arithmetic problems for analysis and other material necessary for conclusions and generalisations be given in a form accessible to children and in sufficient quantity so that children can really make their own reasonable conclusion; at the same time, it is necessary that the material offered for analysis should not contain anything superfluous that would distract children from the necessary generalisation.

Developing in children in the process of learning the ability to analyse, reason, draw conclusions, and draw conclusions, the teacher at the same time teaches children to check their conclusions and judgments. Answer check,

obtained when solving an arithmetic problem through its data, checking the correctness of writing with grammatical knowledge and spelling rules, checking the correctness of the description and judgment about objects and phenomena of reality using a specific observations, etc.—all this leads the student to an understanding of

“truth”. He begins to look for evidence of his judgments, conclusions, to check them in practice.

In order to develop the thinking of children, special exercises are possible that are closely related to the development of children’s speech. In “Instructions for working on the “Native Word”, K. D. Ushinsky gave a large number of examples of how it is necessary to develop the ability to compare, differentiate and generalise. The development of children’s speech is of exceptionally great importance for the development of their thinking. Everyday concern of the teacher in the classroom about the development of correct, accurate and figurative speech of children is at the same time concern for the development of their thinking.

Consciousness of children’s speech should be the subject of special attention of the teacher, not only in the lessons of the Russian language, but also in all other lessons. Whatever subject the teacher deals with children, he must always make sure that children do not pronounce words without understanding their meaning. And for this it is necessary that the objects and phenomena that children get acquainted with find the correct verbal designation in their speech; new words that are assimilated by children would be associated with concrete representations of real things and the phenomena that they designate. In order to develop the thinking and speech of children, the teacher should also monitor the accuracy and completeness of the wording of questions and judgments and behind the sequence of thoughts expressed in the process of transmitting what was heard or read, as well as in the process of reasoning.

The meaningful perception of the communicated knowledge is one of the first conditions for their good memorisation and assimilation. But the requirement for the strength of assimilation, in addition to understanding what is being assimilated, forces the teacher to apply in the lesson a number of special techniques aimed at for the development of memory.

Among the special conditions that contribute to the solid assimilation of knowledge by students during the lesson, it is

necessary to point out some subjective points and, above all, the need to create in students an attitude to memorisation for a long time and willpower associated with it.

One of the teachers tells the following about his methods of working in this direction: “When we go through some rule, I ask the students: “Remember?” Answer: “Remember”. “Until tomorrow or for a long time?”—“Forever”, and the teacher concludes that the consciousness of the need to remember “forever” helps the strength of memorisation.

We should not forget about another “subjective” condition for successful memorisation—a calm emotional state. A state of arousal in students, which might have been favourable for “invention”, for “creative” work, will be unfavourable for memorisation. At the lesson, children at different moments and due to various conditions may have such states of excitation during which the tasks of memorisation should not be set.

Of the objective factors that determine the success of the development of memory and the assimilation of knowledge, it should be noted the amount of material, offered to students for memorisation in the classroom and for homework. It is necessary to limit the amount of educational material, and the more, the younger the children.

In the question of the amount of material offered to students for memorisation, in addition to the question of quantity, we should not forget the selection according to content—highlighting the essential, what must be remembered.

The practice of experienced teachers has established that the strength of memorisation largely depends on the careful handling of the memory of students. that it is necessary to teach children to remember the main thing. If firmly grasped the most essential, then in connection with the main thing, the details are easily remembered.

Of the special conditions that ensure successful memorisation, it is necessary, of course, to emphasise the importance of repetition.

The best teachers state that the volume of educational material indicated in the program does not cause them any difficulties; they usually even exceed it somewhat. When explaining this situation, as one of the reasons, they name the frequent repetition of the past, and they repeat what they have gone through not at the end of a quarter or a year, when it can be forgotten, but gradually, and they repeat not in order to remember what has been forgotten, but in order to prevent forgetting, in order to fix what has been passed in memory.

Of great importance for evoking in children the consciousness of the need for memorisation and the corresponding volitional effort, and, consequently, for the strength of memorisation, is unflagging control over both classroom and homework of students. Control should lead to the fact that in the classroom the students always have a readiness for an answer, and at home there is an attentive attitude to the work, which, as the student knows, will be checked. With a gradual raising students' consciousness, control turns into self-control, into self-examination by children of the results of their work.

Memory develops in children under the condition of certain influences from the teacher. This is manifested most clearly in the phenomenon of so-called direct retention in memory. It should be understood as the ability of the student to immediately repeat, reproduce after a single perception the question proposed by the teacher, the sentence read, the condition of the problem, etc. Teachers who do not work on cultivating this ability often have to repeatedly repeat the dictated sentence, the condition of the problem. even in high school. On the contrary, teachers who constantly demand such direct reproduction, associated primarily with the tension of attention, and exercise children in it by gradually increasing the volume of material to be reproduced, achieve significant results already in the second grade.

The student's memory develops not only in terms of increasing the amount of directly retained material, but also in other respects - in terms of memorisation accuracy (i.e., reducing the number of

errors), in terms of increasing the speed of memorisation and the strength of assimilation (provided that the teacher works on correcting mistakes by the students themselves, constant exercises in reproducing newly acquired and previous knowledge, etc.).

For the development of meaningful memorisation, in addition to ensuring the conscious perception of educational material, as mentioned earlier, it is advisable to use such techniques as comparison and comparison, for example, comparing articles that are similar in content, comparing grammatical forms, spelling, etc. e. Comparison and comparison causes the work of children's thinking and due to this not only the productivity of repetition increases, but also the ability of meaningful memorisation develops.

The best teachers carefully select questions that require the work of thought and prevent the possibility of rote memorisation. For example, such a question as: "Why do broad-leaved trees grow in the zone of mixed forests, and only small-leaved trees in the taiga?" Will require from children just such independent work of thought. Questions and tasks that require independent work of students' thoughts should be introduced not only in the classroom, but also for homework. It is only necessary to always take care that any homework task is sufficiently well explained to the students in the lesson and understood by them.

In addition to the task of organising the activity of attention, perception, thinking and memory of children in such a way that knowledge is acquired by them accurately, meaningfully and firmly, as well as the task of developing these properties of the child's mind, the teacher faces another task. It consists in creating in children a desire for high-quality work, for the result of classes: to achieve competent writing, expressive reading, quick and correct oral counting, etc.

The successful solution of this problem leads to the development of the child's willpower efforts, aimed not only at getting a good mark, but also at what it is given for, i.e., at the struggle for quality knowledge and skills. It is connected with the creation of one of the most valuable motives for a child's learning—

an attitude to work as a matter of honour, valour and glory. The means to achieve this goal is systematic demonstration of good work to the class, differentiated characterisation and evaluation of, for example, how a particular work of art is read, how a dictation or presentation is written from the outside, from the spelling side, from the content side.

One well-deserved teacher in the Russian language lessons, when students independently compiled proposals in connection with certain tasks of the lesson, used this technique. Starting this work, she said: "Now each of you will come up with a proposal (she indicated the requirements for the preparation); those proposals that will be better thought out, we will write on the board. Then, interrogating the students who raised their hands, she said to one or the other: "You have a good idea." When she received something that met her requirements, she said: "You have a great idea; go and write it on the blackboard."

In the case when the teacher was not satisfied with the sentences invented in the class, she said after the survey: "You have come up with many good sentences, but we will write down this one ..." and gave her own example. The class felt that he had not yet achieved an excellent result.

Finally, in the learning process, the teacher is faced with a psychological task of great importance—to create in students such an internal interest in scientific knowledge that would make them seek this knowledge, work independently to expand their information about life of nature and society. Such a goal should be set already in elementary school. It is achieved by the content of the material selected by the teacher for the lesson, and, of course, by the skill of its presentation.

The solution of this problem requires episodic going beyond schools in the form of excursions to nature, production and institutions where children can observe the achievements of science and technology. The skilful organisation of students' observations during these excursions awakens and develops the curiosity of

children, which can then be further developed in the classroom and extracurricular activities of children.

The nature of the assignments for students' homework is also of great importance. Doing homework should require children to think independently. But at the same time, the tasks should be feasible for the students. Confidently overcoming difficulties in the process of completing the task, the student experiences a sense of satisfaction, which contributes to the development of his interest in knowledge and learning.

INDIVIDUAL-PSYCHOLOGICAL DIFFERENCES IN CHILDREN OF PRIMARY SCHOOL AGE

In all teaching and upbringing work of the teacher and in the upbringing work in the family, an individual approach to the child, associated with knowledge of the individual psychological characteristics of children, is of great importance.

It is enough to look at least at the external behaviour of students during lessons to be convinced of the psychological difference in children's individualities. One sits quietly and, as if, is attentive enough to what is being done in the lesson, but does not show activity. Another shows a clear desire to take part in the work, raises his hand, quickly gives an answer to a question addressed to the class. The third person with the whole pose, reactions to the questions of the teacher reveals an indifferent attitude to what is happening. The fourth cannot sit still, he seeks entertainment in what he begins to draw in a notebook or book, pushes a neighbour, etc.

Although these differences seem to be smoothed out by organising firm discipline in the class and mobilising the active attention of the whole class, they undoubtedly exist.

Differences in Temperament

Differences in external behaviour primarily indicate a difference in temperaments. Temperament characterises both the internal activity of a person and his external behaviour, as well as the depth of emotional impressionability and the nature of the mood change.

In psychology, it is customary to distinguish four types of temperament: 1) sanguine; a person with this temperament is usually lively, mobile, impressionable, not distinguished by the

depth of feelings and characterised by a rapid change of mood; 2) choleric; the owner of this temperament sharply expresses his thoughts and feelings, is distinguished by the depth of feelings and the stability of moods; 3) melancholic; a person with such a temperament usually has a depth of feelings, retains them for a long time, but conceals them within himself and reveals very little outside, is distinguished by weak external mobility and the slow flow of mental processes, although the latter sign is not always mandatory; 4) phlegmatic; this is a person— “heavy on the rise”, with weak and slow movements, slow in thoughts, weakly feeling, with slow changes in mood.

Often an adult and a child combine the features of different temperaments, but sometimes one of these temperaments is pronounced.

Temperament has no definite relation to mental abilities, but it is reflected in volitional qualities — initiative, perseverance in activity, etc. — and in the nature of the course of some mental processes, such as alertness and sustained attention.

Differences in temperaments, as indicated above, are noticeable in behaviour already at the initial stage of education. If they are noticed in the behaviour in the lesson, then they are even more detected outside the lesson: during the break, in extracurricular life and activities.

The teacher should be able to notice the differences in the temperaments of schoolchildren and take them into account mainly in their reactions both to the behaviour of children during the lesson and to their actions of a moral nature, primarily to actions that represent violations of the rules of behaviour by schoolchildren.

If the sanguine person himself raises his hand, wanting to answer the question, then the phlegmatic person needs to be “raised”, called to answer, etc.

In case of violation of the rules by a schoolboy of a melancholy temperament sometimes a reproachful look at him is enough to cause a blush on his face and an indisputable manifestation of remorse, and a choleric person needs to make a calm but firm

remark. And outside of school, in particular, in social work, the sanguine and the choleric will take the initiative, and the phlegmatic must be drawn into work. The same is observed in the games of children.

It must be remembered that temperament can change throughout life, as the nervous system changes, the features of which underlie various temperaments. Therefore, one should not refuse to work on the elimination of individual negative traits of temperament—inactivity and low impressionability in a phlegmatic person, sharpness of expressions of feelings in a choleric person, etc.

Differences in character traits in early school age

Among the features that affect the entire personality of a person, along with features in temperaments, psychology also indicates differences in characters.

In a child of primary school age, of course, one cannot speak of a character that has been formed in any way. Character is the result of a long development of a person in the process of his practical activity. Character is determined by the worldview of a person, manifested in his attitude to work, to other people, to himself, in his moral habits.

But already at primary school age, one can notice differences in character in children, to which the teacher should pay serious attention when developing the basic properties of the Bolshevik character.

One child studies hard, the other is lazy; one is attentive to his comrades, in the other we notice features of egoism—he cares only about himself; one of them has a very high opinion of himself—“a smart-ass”, according to his comrades, the other, on the contrary, is too modest in self-esteem.

There are certain differences in children and in volitional qualities, which are an integral part of the content of the character:

some are initiative, others are waiting for a call to action; some are persistent in work, others quickly get tired or cool to work. This has already been said in the characterisation of temperaments, with which character and volitional activity have some connection.

All the above differences in character traits, in particular in volitional qualities, can be changed, but they change under the influence of education, which requires considerable attention and time. First of all, the teacher needs to see these traits in each student.

In the development of volitional qualities, it is of great importance to create a child's self-confidence. Teachers who give a general assessment, such as the following: "You, as always, everything is dirty, sloppy, a lot of mistakes," make a gross mistake against the psychology of the child. The following response to these remarks is more or less clearly formed in the mind of the student: "Since I always do this, since nothing comes out of me, then there is nothing for me to try."

On the contrary, it should always be noted that the child has done well, what he has achieved, and, calmly pointing out the shortcomings that still exist in his work, determine exactly what he should achieve in the near future.

If certain tasks are not fulfilled, it is necessary to allow their temporary reduction, if this failure does not depend on the insufficient efforts of the student, but on the unbearability of the tasks themselves for him at this stage of his development. It is necessary that the student develop confidence in his abilities in performing small tasks, and then gradually increase them, and always care must be taken that the tasks require some volitional effort and that the degree of this effort gradually increases.

In cultivating attitudes towards work, towards other people and towards ourselves, we clearly understand the goals that should be achieved in work with students. These goals are determined by the understanding of the qualities of the Bolshevik character.

It is necessary to pay attention to those schoolchildren whose observed character traits correspond to the named requirements,

and point to their actions as an example worthy of imitation. But at the same time, one must act very skilfully, otherwise children of this age (later this is expressed even more strongly) develop a critical attitude towards the teacher who singles out good students (“favourites”), and a hostile attitude towards these students.

It is often necessary to use the technique of encouraging someone who, say, reveals a somewhat lazy attitude to work for a certain job: “I think that this will do well so-and-so.” Children of this age have a highly developed sense of competition, and this feeling can often excite the child's energy.

Everyone knows the methods of the remarkable Soviet teacher A. S. Makarenko, who gave responsible instructions to young men who committed serious misconduct. In our school there are many examples of the successful “transformation” of naughty and disorganisers into active and disciplined, if they were entrusted with a certain task, especially if their interests were taken into account.

Differences in the Mental Activity of Children

It is indisputable that every elementary school student has special features in mental activity.

Already sharp, painful deviations in the field of vision and hearing, which affect perception and determine, first of all, the placement of students in the classroom, speak of this. Shortcomings in this respect, of course, affect other aspects of conscious activity: memory, quick wits, etc.

The differences in students' perceptions and attention to what is happening in the classroom have already been mentioned above. They also memorise and reproduce from memory some faster, others more slowly, give answers—some without any delay, others after a long reflection.

Often the teacher does not consider these features, does not wait patiently for a response from a student who is slowly remembering, but immediately proceeds to questioning other

students; in such cases, the slow ones remain inactive and discouraged.

There are also differences in the strength of memorisation, that is, memorisation for a long time. There are differences and in the speed of ingenuity, that is, in psychological terms, in the realm of thinking itself.

In psychology, the above-mentioned differences in mental activity usually refer to different degrees of development of the mind; they are called quantitative differences. In addition to these, there are still qualitative differences, of which the most famous are differences in the nature of the prevailing ideas or images. Some have clear and distinct visual images; in others, auditory; memory for movements can also be developed to varying degrees. Qualitative differences can also affect other aspects of mental work. Some people's attention is blurry, while others are focused.

In meaningful perception and thinking, one is more prone to analysis, the other to synthesis, etc. Qualitative differences usually show up later, partly developing under the influence of training, but can also be noticed at primary school age, and quantitative differences are more noticeable here.

The teacher's task is to notice differences in the mental activity of children, as well as differences in relation to other aspects of the child's personality indicated above. The best way to do this is during the course. Looking closely at how one or another student answers—quickly or slowly, distinctly or indistinctly, correctly or incorrectly—the teacher can draw a conclusion about the features of various aspects of mental activity: attention, perception, memory. It is only necessary to remember that this conclusion requires a correct interpretation of observations of the student's behaviour. If the student did not answer what was just explained, then this may depend not only on his inattention, but also on the unsuccessful, inept explanation of the teacher. It is also necessary to take a closer look at how the student responds when he reproduces information reported much earlier than this lesson; The results of the observations will help to elucidate the features of memorisation

and the 'strength' of the memory of one or another schoolboy. Peculiarities can also be noticed in the intelligence or, more precisely, in the work of the child's thinking.

The teacher must record all his observations in relation to individual students in his notes, which will serve as the basis for compiling the individual characteristics of students. Then he conducts work, taking into account these differences in students, more often asks those who do not remember well, sometimes gives individual tasks of a repetitive nature to those who quickly forget, etc. The teacher should pay special attention to errors in the answers, trying to find out what caused these errors: whether his own work or the characteristics of the student.

When "pulling up" those who are lagging behind, it is sometimes useful to conduct several individual sessions with them in order, firstly, to find out the reasons for the lagging behind, secondly, to do some additional work with them, and, thirdly (and most importantly), to make up for the resulting knowledge gaps.



DIDACTIC BASIS OF TRAINING

The requirements that the primary education of children must meet are determined by the tasks of the school and the characteristics of children of primary school age. In order to scientifically substantiate the requirements for learning, it is necessary to know the patterns of the very process of mastering knowledge, skills and abilities.

Based on the basic provisions of psychology outlined above, we can say that the acquisition of knowledge is not a mechanical memorisation of the words of a teacher or a textbook, but a complex mental work, a complex process of education in the minds of children of ideas about objects and phenomena of the real world, the process of formation and development of scientific concepts awareness of the connections between phenomena, which is organised and directed by the teacher with the help of didactic tools specially created for this purpose—textbooks, teaching aids, etc.

Representations are formed in children in two main ways. The first way is the direct sensory perception of objects and phenomena. The teacher shows the children an object and, with the help of a successive series of questions, directs attention to its characteristic features: shape, size, colour, etc. Comparison of objects helps clarify ideas. In the process of comparison, the distinctive features of the object stand out more clearly. This technique is especially necessary when children can easily mix the object being studied with other objects similar to it (for example, rye, barley and wheat; pine and spruce; magpie and crow, etc.). Some properties of objects are especially well revealed when children act on this object in the process of practical exercises or labour. For example, the flexibility and elasticity of steel are revealed if children are asked to bend and then release a steel plate; the hardness of steel—by scratching it on iron, copper, aluminium; looseness and density of the soil—when digging up beds and paths, etc. A sketch of an object helps to clarify and consolidate ideas:

when a child draws, he carefully peers into the outlines and colour of the object and notices at the same time what, with a superficial glance at the object, he would not pay attention.

Simultaneously with the formation of the representation, the teacher refines and enriches the children's vocabulary, while the word and the image of the object (or its properties) are combined in the mind and form one whole.

The greater the stock of specific ideas in children, the stronger the basis for mastering the system of scientific knowledge.

The second way of forming representations is their formation with the help of the imagination without direct sensory perception of objects and phenomena. New representations are thus created from the representations already available to the child.

Representation gives the image of a single object. For example, if a child examines a cat, then the image of this cat with all its individual features (size, colour, body shape, etc.) is imprinted in his mind. But the task of the school is to give children the concept of a cat in general, as a domestic predatory mammal. The study of this particular cat serves as a means for the formation of the concept of a cat in the minds of children. The concept reveals the essential features of all cats in general. Concepts are formed in the process of learning in two main ways: through direct sensory perception of individual objects and phenomena, and indirectly through the activity of thinking, based on previously learned ideas and concepts.

The essence of the first way is that the teacher organises a direct sensory perception of things, phenomena, in which the typical features of objects of a given class are most clearly found. Through a series of questions, comparison, the teacher helps students to see the inner essence of an object or phenomenon, highlight the typical, discard the random, reveal the essential connections and, on the basis of this, formulate a definition of the concept containing a list of essential features and connections. To consolidate the created concept in the minds of students, the teacher suggests writing down the definition, reading and learning the relevant textbook material, organising exercises, offering a

number of questions, tasks, and tasks that encourage students to apply the concept in practice. The connection of theory with practice is the most important condition for the successful mastering of scientific concepts.

The second way of the formation of concepts consists in the theoretical presentation and disclosure of the essential features of the concept, and the teacher relies on the concepts and ideas previously learned by the children. This path becomes possible when students accumulate a certain stock of concepts obtained as a result of direct sensory perception of things and phenomena.

Children (especially in the lower grades) cannot immediately assimilate the concepts of science in their modern, mature form. Each concept passes in the minds of students a long way of development. So, for example, already in the second grade, children learn to answer the questions “who” and “what”, while not knowing anything about the noun. In grade III, children learn to identify words denoting objects in speech. In grade III, the term “noun” and the initial concept of it are given. Children learn that a noun is a part of speech denoting an object, that a noun has a singular and plural, is masculine, feminine and neuter, changes in cases, etc.

The task of primary education is not only to enrich the minds of students with the rudiments of scientific knowledge, but also to equip children with skills and abilities. Skills and abilities are developed through systematic conscious exercises. Having set a goal for the children, the teacher explains how to achieve it, and shows the methods for performing this or that action, dividing the complex action into elements. Children, having comprehended the essence of the shown action, try to perform it, the teacher notes the mistakes and achieves (by repeated explanation and demonstration) the correct, conscious performance of the action. Further, through repeated exercises, students acquire automated skills.

At all stages of mastering knowledge, skills and abilities, the connection between training and practice plays an important role. Practice generates questions in children that need to be answered, and this contributes to an increase in interest in learning.

Communication with objects and phenomena in the process of practical influence on them helps to form specific ideas, scientific concepts, and reveal the connections between phenomena. Practice helps children to be convinced of the truth of the theoretical knowledge received at the lessons. Practice, requiring the application of knowledge, skills and abilities, contributes to their consolidation, lasting assimilation.

The success of learning depends on the attitude of students to learning, on the motives for learning. Teaching motives develop and form in connection with the development of the content of the child's life relationships. The real life of the child takes place in school, family, in communication with adults and peers.

A great influence on the formation of motives for the activities of children (in particular, the motives for learning) is exerted by the class and school staff. By organising a meaningful life of the children's team, creating a favourable environment for a variety of children's activities, the teacher brings to life ever deeper and more meaningful motives for learning, making learning an integral part of children's lives.

With such an organisation, teaching ceases to be something alien to children that needs to “depart”, but acquires a deep life meaning for them, arouses interest in the content of what is being studied, an emotional upsurge and the mobilisation of all mental forces. Teaching becomes really a matter of honor for the student.

These are, in brief, the most important regularities in the process of arming students with knowledge, skills and habits. Knowing these patterns established by Marxist psychology and pedagogy, the teacher can properly organise teaching.

Communist Purposefulness of Education

In the process of learning, the worldview of students is formed, Bolshevik character traits are developed. Education is the main

means of solving the educational tasks of the school. Therefore, it must be communist purposeful.

The communist purposefulness of education is expressed in its Bolshevik party spirit. This means that when introducing facts and events to children, the Soviet teacher must present them not dispassionately, coldly, indifferently, objectivistically, but in a lively, combative style, evaluating facts and events from the point of view of the interests of communism.

The ideas of communism in our country are put into practice by the Communist Party and the Soviet state. The policy pursued by the Communist Party expresses the vital interests of the Soviet people who are building a communist society. To evaluate the facts and events under study from the point of view of the interests of communism means to evaluate them from the point of view of the policy of the Communist Party, that is, to approach them in a party way, as V. I. Lenin taught to do this and as J. V. Stalin teaches.

Only such training can instil in students the foundations of a dialectical-materialist worldview, Bolshevik conviction and passion, a sense of patriotism and national pride, a communist attitude towards work, public property, and people.

The principle of the Bolshevik party spirit in education obliges the teacher to acquaint students in a form accessible to their understanding with the most important achievements of socialist construction and the facts of the political life of our country.

Scientific Teaching

The task of the Soviet school is to educate people with a communist worldview. The communist worldview is based on scientific knowledge about the world. All teaching at school should be scientific. The Soviet school does not allow non-scientific knowledge to be communicated to students and is actively fighting prejudices and superstitions that give an incorrect, distorted idea of the world.

The Soviet school must train highly educated people. A person educated in the field of a particular science is, first of all, a person who is well aware of the most important facts reliably established by this science. Without a solid knowledge of the facts of science, there can be no question of a serious general education.

This obliges the teacher, when preparing and conducting lessons, to carefully select facts from the life of nature and human society, not allowing the communication of erroneous, false information.

But you can know a lot of facts and still not be an educated person. Education presupposes not a simple heaping of facts, not simply memorising them, but also an understanding of the objects and phenomena being studied.

In order to understand any object or phenomenon, it is not enough to know its name and be able to distinguish it from other objects in appearance. An educated Soviet person cannot confine himself to such superficial knowledge. Behind the outer appearance of an object, he must see its inner essence. This requirement also applies to primary education. So, for example, having introduced children to a cat, a dog, a cow, a horse in explanatory reading lessons, the teacher leads the children to generalisation and helps them to realise the essential features of all domestic animals (they benefit a person; a person breeds them, takes care of them—feeds them, gives them water, provides them with a place to live).

Based on long-term observations of the weather and seasonal changes in nature, the teacher reveals the essence of the concept of climate, etc.

It goes without saying that the essence of this or that phenomenon cannot be immediately revealed to children with such depth, which is established by modern science. Each concept in the learning process gradually deepens and expands.

Thus, the teacher must lead the children from the perception of the external appearance of an object or phenomenon to the awareness of its internal essence.

The essence of an object is found in its connections with other objects. In order to really understand an object or phenomenon, it is necessary to study it not in isolation, but in connection with other objects and phenomena.

So, for example, in order to understand what a herbivore is, it is necessary to show the connection of herbivores with the conditions of their life and nutrition. To understand multiplication, we must consider it in connection with addition. To understand an adjective, one must consider it in connection with the noun to which it refers, etc.

Therefore, when introducing children to objects and phenomena, it is necessary to reveal the simplest connections between natural phenomena and human society in forms that are accessible and obvious to children.

In order to fully and deeply understand an object, one must know where and how it arose, how and under the influence of what it changes. Consideration of the subject in its origin, change and development is the most important condition for scientific knowledge. This obliges the teacher to acquaint children in an accessible form (based on observations, stories, etc.) with the development of the objects and phenomena being studied.

So, for example, children can follow in a living corner the development of a plant from a seed, the development of a shoot from a bud, the development of a fruit from a flower, the development of a frog from an egg, the development of a butterfly from an egg, etc.

In the field of social phenomena, children should be shown in a number of vivid pictures the origin and development of the revolutionary movement in tsarist Russia, the development of socialist industry, agriculture, transport under Soviet power, etc.

Familiarisation of students with the achievements of science and technology will show them the power of human knowledge: a person, knowing the phenomena of nature and social life, gets the opportunity to consciously control them, remake the world. This will also help protect students from blind worship of the elemental

forces of nature, from belief in miracles, from various prejudices and superstitions. Outlining the foundations of scientific knowledge, the teacher must at the same time acquaint students with specific examples and with the most important methods for studying the phenomena of nature and society (observations, experiments, etc.).

Connection Between Theory and Practice of Socialist Construction

It is well known what great importance the founders of Marxism-Leninism attached to practice when developing the theory of knowledge. Science arose out of the needs of social practice and serves practice.

Education is an active, active force for the transformation of the world. But in order for it to become such a force, it is necessary, in the very process of learning, to ensure an organic connection between theory and practice. This obliges teachers to saturate lessons with materials from the practice of socialist construction and show children how science helps people remake their lives. A particularly striking example in this regard is Michurin's agrobiolgy and the achievements of the leading workers of socialist agriculture.

Linking the content of instruction with the practice of socialist construction helps to increase the ideological content of the educational material and increases the students' interest in learning.

But the connection between theory and practice should not be limited to theoretical acquaintance with the practice of socialist construction. The task of the teacher is to organise the practical activities of the students themselves.

“Without work,” Lenin pointed out, “without struggle, bookish knowledge of communism from communist pamphlets and works is worth absolutely nothing, since it would continue the old gap between theory and practice, that old gap that constituted the most

disgusting feature of the old bourgeois society”¹ The outlook and education of Soviet people is characterised by an active approach to reality, perseverance in achieving goals, a selfless struggle for our great ideals, and a desire to actively participate in public life. Lenin therefore urged the youth to combine their education, training and upbringing with the labour of workers and peasants. He urged young people not to lock themselves within the walls of the school, not to limit themselves to the theoretical study of communism, but every day in any village, in any city, to solve practically one or another task of common labour, even the smallest, even the simplest.

The experience of the best schools in our country provides numerous examples of the active participation of elementary school students in socialist construction.

But practice in education is not only participation in productive labour and social work, but also laboratory classes, measuring work on the ground, work in a corner of nature, etc.

All these activities improve the quality of learning, help to overcome formalism in learning.

Consciousness of Learning

Consciousness of learning should be understood both as a conscious attitude of students to learning, and as a conscious assimilation (understanding) of what is being studied, and as a conscious application of knowledge.

Teaching is work, and any work is successful when its purpose is clear, when the worker sees the connection of his work with the cause of the whole people, when he does not mechanically perform someone else's task, but considers it his vital business, 'puts his soul into it' working with passion. Work is well argued when the friendly work of the whole team is established. The success of learning

¹ Lenin, Soch., Vol. XXX, pp. 404-405.

increases when the teacher manages to connect it with the range of vital interests of children, with their various activities.

The education in students of a conscious attitude to learning facilitates the resolution of another most important pedagogical task—the conscious assimilation of knowledge.

The assimilation of knowledge at school is accomplished in the process of active work of children organised by the teacher: listening, reading, writing, solving problems, setting up experiments, practical work, etc. The task of all these various types of activity is to awaken the active work of children's thoughts. The more conscious children are about learning and the material being studied, the more actively their thought works. Raising a conscious attitude to learning increases the activity of students.

The activity of students' thinking also depends on the ability of the teacher to manage the course of the thought process and organise the friendly work of the class team. For these purposes, the teacher should teach children to listen and follow the course of their thoughts, observe, compare, find similarities and differences, draw conclusions and generalisations, etc.

Awakening the activity of children is the most important condition for the conscious assimilation of knowledge.

The second most important condition that ensures the consciousness of assimilation is visualisation. All the knowledge accumulated by mankind is clothed in verbal form. The content of each academic subject is transmitted to the child, assimilated by him and expressed in the form of the words. For conscious assimilation of the words of the teacher and the text of the textbook, the student must understand the meaning of each word.

“A child who is not accustomed to delve into the meaning of a word, understands or does not understand its real meaning at all, and has not acquired the habit of disposing of it freely in oral and

written speech, will always suffer from this fundamental defect when learning any other subject”¹.

Teaching children to understand words means discovering their meanings. The meaning of a word is a reflection of reality in the consciousness of a person. To reveal the meaning of a word means to form in the minds of students the corresponding ideas and concepts. That is why, when introducing new words to children, it is necessary at the same time to acquaint them with the objects and phenomena that are denoted by these words. This idea was beautifully expressed by Comenius.

“Words must be taught and studied not only with things, just as wine is sold, bought and carried along with dishes, a sword with a scabbard, a tree with bark, a fruit with its skin. .. So, no matter what language we study, even our native language, we need to show things that are denoted by words, and, on the other hand, we must also learn to express in words everything that you see, what you touch, what you eat so that speech and thought would always go parallel and would therefore develop together”¹.

The simultaneous study of things and words, or in other words, the visibility of teaching, is the most important didactic requirement for elementary education.

The Soviet school attaches paramount importance to the direct perception of real objects and phenomena by various sense organs and does not limit itself to passive contemplation of objects, but organises practical exercises, experiments, and influence on objects in the labour process. Subjected to various changes in the process of practical training and labour, the object reveals its various properties more vividly and more fully. However, Soviet pedagogy considers sensory perception of individual objects and phenomena not as an end in itself, but as the initial moment of cognition of the

¹ D. Ushinsky Selected Pedagogical Writings, vol. II, Uchpedgiz, 1939, p. 153.

¹ A. Komensky, Selected Pedagogical Works, vol. 1, Uchpedgiz, 1939, p. 201. (Our detente. — Ed.)

essence. Following Lenin's teaching on the unity of the general and the separate, phenomena and essence, we study individual objects and phenomena with children in order to find something in common in them, in order to discover the essence in the phenomenon, to form scientific concepts in the minds of children.

The next most important condition for ensuring the conscious assimilation of knowledge is the systematic and consistent learning. In order to really understand an object, it is necessary to study it in connection with other objects, that is, to consider it not in isolation, but in a system of other objects and phenomena.

Speaking about the systematic nature of education in elementary school, one must keep in mind such a construction of classes, when each new provision is based on previously studied material and, in turn, is the basis for the assimilation of the subsequent one. So, for example, addition in pairs, triplets, quadruples, etc. is a prerequisite for learning the multiplication table, and the multiplication table is the basis for learning division.

Systematicity is also expressed in the grouping of the studied objects and phenomena according to certain characteristics. So, for example, all natural phenomena in the first grade are studied in the sequence of the seasons. Historical events in the course of history are studied in chronological order, etc. Systematicity and consistency are also needed in the development of skills. So, for example, in calligraphy lessons, children first learn to write elements of letters, then letters and words.

For a better understanding of what is being studied, it is useful and necessary to repeatedly return to the previously covered, expanding and deepening it.

A return to the previously covered material is necessary because the concepts and laws of science cannot be immediately assimilated by children with the necessary depth, but develop gradually in the minds of students. A repeated return to the previously studied is not reduced to its simple mechanical reproduction, but involves considering it in new connections by comparing and contrasting it with the newly studied.

One of the conditions that ensure the consciousness of assimilation is the availability of the presentation of educational material. Children can understand only what is available for them to understand, what does not exceed their mental powers.

The availability or inaccessibility for children of a particular educational material is determined by its complexity, as well as the level of development of children and their previous preparation.

As mentioned above, children must not only consciously assimilate knowledge, but also consciously apply it. This implies the requirement to systematically teach children to creatively apply the acquired knowledge to solving theoretical and practical problems.

Only that knowledge becomes our real property, which we can consciously use and creatively apply in practice.

«...It is one thing to know Marxism, but it is another thing to apply this Marxism every day, every hour, in the most diverse circumstances, in a unique and unprecedented situation... to be a Marxist is to be a creator.”¹

The conscious application of knowledge to solving theoretical and practical problems contributes to their better understanding, makes them more concrete, vital, and meaningful. The ability to apply the acquired knowledge does not automatically follow from their strong memorisation and even understanding: you can well understand and memorise some scientific conclusion, a law, but not be able to use it.

The application of knowledge must be taught. The ability to apply knowledge is achieved through systematic exercises in their creative application. Classroom and homework assignments offered for independent work should encourage children in every possible way to use the acquired knowledge in a creative way. Particularly large scope for the creative application of knowledge opens up in extracurricular work—in the circles of young local historians, Michurinists, technicians, etc. All attempts at independent creative

¹ M. I. Kalinin, *On Communist Education*, Molodaya Gvardiya, 1947, pp. 11-12.

application of knowledge shown by students should be encouraged in every possible way. It is necessary to ensure that children not only know how to apply knowledge independently, but also that it becomes their habit. Therefore, they must not only be taught to apply knowledge, but also taught to do it.

The principle of conscious learning is particularly important, because the disclosure of its essence determines the ways to form the communist consciousness of students, shows how to organise teaching in order to awaken children's desire for knowledge, active work of thought leading to an understanding of reality and the development of cognitive powers, and how to instill in children the ability and habit of creatively applying It is possible to equip students with truly scientific knowledge, which is the basis of a dialectical-materialistic worldview, only if the training is conscious.

Soviet didactics overcomes the narrowly intellectualistic interpretation of consciousness, understanding consciousness as not only the conscious assimilation of knowledge, but also the conscious attitude of students to the teaching and the material being studied, the formation of teaching motives that make the entire learning process meaningful.

But the attitude to something is always emotionally coloured. The importance of emotions in learning is exceptionally high. The process of conscious knowledge acquisition generally involves a state of healthy emotional arousal and uplift.

The state of boredom, emotional depression or dull indifference are the worst enemies of the teaching. From the rational approval of the idea is still far from its implementation. If an idea has great material power, it owes this to a large extent to feeling. The communist ideas with which the Soviet school equips children are not should be cold, formal, rational ideas. They should be warmed by the warmth of feeling and capture children. That is why the teacher of the Soviet school should not expound his subject coldly and dispassionately. Loving his own subject, he must infect his students with this love, skilfully find the keys to their hearts. The great ideas of communism, warmed by the fire of feelings, are able

to mobilise all the spiritual forces of a person and make him a passionate fighter, capable of a feat.

Strength of Assimilation of Knowledge

The task of teaching is not only to provide an understanding of what is being studied, but also to fix basic facts, definitions, rules in children's memory and develop stable, lasting skills.

In order to achieve a solid assimilation of knowledge, it is necessary first of all to awaken children's interest in the material being studied and active work of thought. The deeper the interest in the subject, the more active the student's mind works, the stronger the assimilation of the studied material. Next, it is necessary to help children establish a variety of semantic connections of the studied material with previously studied and with their (students') life experience. The richer the semantic connections, the easier it is to retain the material being learned in memory. Understanding and comprehending the educational material is the basis for its strong memorisation.

The old scholastic school also provided solid knowledge, but it achieved this by mechanical rote learning. In contrast, the Soviet school achieves strength on the basis of prior conscious mastery of knowledge and skills. In this way, solidity takes on a completely different quality as a result of its connection with consciousness.

But in order to achieve a solid assimilation of educational material, it is not enough to achieve only its understanding. It is necessary to organise its memorisation by children. In each subject, there is basic material that should be firmly fixed in memory (basic facts, definitions, rules), and secondary material that explains the main provisions. When organising memorisation, it is necessary to help children identify the main material and set them the task of learning and memorising it.

Young children often do not know how to memorise. Hence, it is necessary to teach children the correct methods of memorisation.

In the process of memorisation, there are three main stages: comprehension of the text during its initial reading; reproduction of the text, alternating with its reading; consolidation of the learned material by repetitions, which are separated from each other by more or less significant intervals of time. When offering children to learn the teaching material, they should explain the techniques and sequence of memorisation and organise special practical exercises in the classroom to master these techniques.

Knowledge that is not reinforced by repetition is gradually forgotten. This implies the need to organise a systematic repetition of what has been done. Based on the data of psychology, it is necessary to repeat with children what you have learned not when it is already forgotten, but while forgetting has not yet begun. Experienced teachers begin to repeat the material already in the lesson in which this material was presented, forcing children to reproduce the main content of what was explained or read at the end of the lesson. Next, children are given a homework assignment to repeat from the textbook and learn what is explained in class. In the next lesson, the teacher interviews the children to check their homework. This survey is a new repetition of the completed one. In the future, you should repeat what you have learned in all cases where it helps you better understand what is new, and establish a connection between what is new and what you have previously learned.

Following this rule enriches the semantic connections of the studied material and contributes to its stronger memorisation.

All that has been said about the consolidation of knowledge largely applies to the consolidation of skills.

Solid mastery of skills is achieved through conscious mastery of them, special training exercises, and application in a variety of settings.

Teamwork and Individual Approach in Training

The teacher does not teach classes with each student separately, as was the case, for example, in a medieval school, but with a group of students in a class. And this is done not only for economic reasons or for the sake of convenience for the teacher, but primarily for pedagogical purposes. The class collective is not a mechanical sum of individual students, but a kind of social organism that lives and develops according to its own special laws, creating the most favourable environment for learning and the development of each individual.

The team is created on a common cause. The main activity of the class team is teaching, but in addition to teaching, the class team has other activities and interests: extracurricular activities in science, technology, art, sports, organising cultural recreation, participating in school life and public life of the country. The more diverse and meaningful the activity of the team, the wider the field for active manifestations of children, the more full-blooded the life of the team. In the process of collective life and activity, children develop correct relationships with each other and children with the teacher. A well-coordinated and meaningful team life is one of the most important conditions for successful training.

The children's school collective is part of the Soviet society. His life is connected by thousands of threads with the life of the Soviet country. This determines the ideological orientation, moral character and general spirit of the collective of Soviet schoolchildren. This distinguishes the collective of Soviet schoolchildren from the collective of students in a bourgeois school, built on the foundations of personal success, competition, the right of the strong and other principles of bourgeois morality.

Every teacher should be able to organise a purposeful and meaningful life of the children's collective and manage its development. Only under these conditions will he be able to successfully solve the educational tasks facing him.

It goes without saying that although the class-based system tends to place children with the same level of development and training in the class, however, in fact, such equality never occurs.

There are always significant differences in the level of development and training between students in the same class, even if the class is taught by the same teacher for a number of years (i.e., all children are exposed to the same pedagogical influences). It is impossible not to take this circumstance into account, otherwise children with an insufficient level of development and poor preparation will fall behind the class and turn into underachievers.

Therefore, when talking about the availability of educational material for students, Soviet didactics recommends that the teacher should conform not only to the average level of development and training of the entire class, but also to the individual characteristics of individual children.

These are the didactic foundations of learning in the Soviet school. By organising training based on these principles, the teacher will be able to successfully complete the educational tasks facing the school.

GENERAL LESSON METHODOLOGY

“... The main form of organisation of educational work in primary and secondary schools should be a lesson with a given group of students with a strictly defined schedule of classes and a firm composition of students. This form should include, under the guidance of the teacher, group-wide, team-based, and individual work of each student using a variety of teaching methods. At the same time, collective forms of educational work should be developed in every possible way, without practicing the organisation of permanent and mandatory teams.

... The teacher is obliged to systematically, consistently expound the discipline he teaches, accustoming children in every possible way to work on a textbook and a book, to various kinds of independent written work, to work in an office, in a laboratory, in a training workshop and widely using, along with these basic methods, various kinds of demonstrations of experiments and instruments, excursions (to a factory, a museum, a field, a forest, etc.); At the same time, the teacher should help the children in every possible way in case of difficulties in their studies.¹

Preparing for the Lesson

An indispensable condition for a good lesson is the careful preparation of the teacher for it. Some teachers tend to think that only a novice teacher should prepare for a lesson. This point of view is fundamentally wrong. Experience shows that the best teachers,

¹ From the Decree of the Central Committee of the All-Union Communist Party of Bolsheviks of August 25, 1932 ‘On Curricula and Regime in Primary and Secondary Schools.’ Directives of the All-Union Communist Party of Bolsheviks and the Decrees of the Soviet Government on Public Education for 1917-1947. Publishing house of APN RSFSR. 1947, no. 1, page 163.

who have a long teaching experience, prepare for each lesson and devote a lot of time and attention to it. The teacher can master the skill of teaching children, provided that he works in depth and systematically from lesson to lesson on the content of the educational material and on the method of teaching it. Only that lesson can be conducted correctly, successfully and interestingly, the material of which the teacher has mastered to perfection. Therefore, the first task of the teacher in preparing for the lesson is a detailed acquaintance with its content. It is necessary to carefully read the relevant articles or paragraphs of the textbook, think over the scientific and ideological aspects of the educational material, accurately determine its volume for the lesson, highlight the main points, and establish the degree of difficulty of the material, taking into account the preparation of children. The teacher should take material for the lesson in such a volume that he can thoroughly and leisurely study it with the children in the allotted time for this.

Then the teacher should determine the forms of use of the material in the lesson and, depending on this, carefully analyse it. If the material is intended for a teacher's story or a conversation with children, then it is necessary:

- 1) establish a sequence in the presentation of the material and divide it into logical parts;

- 2) highlight the main thing on which the main attention should be focused when studying the material;

- 3) accurately remember examples, definitions, conclusions, names, titles, dates, etc.;

- 4) think over the story in detail from the point of view of the tasks of communist education and outline questions for conversation.

If the material is intended for oral or written exercises in order to consolidate what has been learned, then the teacher should familiarise himself with it practically—solve problems and examples, parse the text, etc.

If the material is intended to be read in class, then it is necessary to:

1) carefully read the story or article, understand the scientific and ideological aspects of their content and think over the explanation of the most difficult places in the text;

2) highlight words and expressions unfamiliar to children and think over their explanation;

3) outline questions and tasks in connection with reading.

Familiarisation with the content of the lesson should not be limited to studying the material of the textbook. The teacher's knowledge must go far beyond the textbook from which the children learn. Therefore, when preparing for a lesson, you need to refresh in your memory all the knowledge that deepens and expands the content of the lesson. For this purpose, it is useful to use textbooks for secondary school, various types of manuals and relevant popular science literature.

The second task of preparing the teacher for the lesson is a thorough study of the methods of work in the lesson. Already in the process of getting acquainted with the material of the lesson, it is necessary to think over the methods of working with children. After reviewing the material of the lesson, the teacher should look through the methodological guides and form a clear idea of what methods and techniques should be used to study this material with children or how it should be used to consolidate the knowledge that children already have.

Having thought over the organisation and methods of work in the lesson, the teacher selects visual aids, checks their suitability, makes experiments if they will be carried out in the lesson, and determines the content, form and volume of children's homework. The teacher then proceeds to plan the lesson.

In the lesson plan, the topic of the lesson is written first. The purpose of the lesson can then be specified. If the goal is clear from the topic, then it is usually not indicated in the plan. The topic of the lesson is given in a detailed and complete formulation, clearly and accurately defining the content of the lesson, designed for an academic hour. For example, a lesson topic such as "Dividing three-digit numbers ending in zero by a single-digit number" is imprecise,

vague, and large for one lesson. And, on the contrary, the theme of the lesson in such a formulation as “The division of three-digit numbers ending in zero by a single number, when separately hundreds and tens are divided by a single number”, is clear without any comments.

You should avoid impersonal lessons, the theme of which is formulated in one word 'Continuation' or 'Repetition'. Such lessons testify to the unpreparedness of the teacher for the lesson and are one of the reasons for the waste of study time.

Having written down the topic of the lesson, the teacher then indicates the course of the lesson in the plan, briefly describing the content and forms of work in their methodological sequence, for example:

Arithmetic. January 25:

Theme of the lesson. “Introducing students to the division of multi-digit numbers by two-digit”.

1. Checking homework.

2. Preparatory exercises for explaining the new lesson material: oral solution of examples for dividing a two-digit number by a two-digit number (80:16; 72:24; 48:12; 96:24, etc.).

3. Explanation of the new case divided by the solution of examples: 912:24; 864:36; 792:22; 4958 :37; 6975:75; 5568:64; 4408 :58; 41494 : 48.

4. Exercise in solving examples and one problem for dividing a multi-valued number by a two-valued one (examples from the problem book No., task No. ..).

5. Homework: the second columns from exercise No

The plan can be written down by the teacher and in more detail. So, in the above example, the third moment of work in the lesson can be written as follows:

“Explaining the division of a three-digit number and a two-digit number using the example of 912:24. Decide with children of examples 864:36; 792:22; 4958:37. The explanation for dividing a

four-digit number by a two-digit one, when thousands and hundreds make up a number less than the divisor, is $6975:75$. Solution of examples $5568:64$; $4408:58$; $41424:48$. Conclusion: how to divide a multi-digit number by a two-digit number.

Writing a detailed lesson plan is useful to practice when studying difficult sections of the program, especially for novice teachers.

As can be seen from the above example, the lesson plan is drawn up without any graphs and columns, in the form of a continuous record. At the end of the lesson plan, you can write down the names of the students whom the teacher intends to ask at the lesson, and also leave space for comments about how the lesson went, how the work planned by the plan was completed. Such comments are often found in the plans of experienced teachers, and there they are more necessary for a novice teacher. Lesson equipment and working methods are not specified separately in the plan: they are included in the general text of the lesson progress record.

When revealing the content of explanations, a story or a conversation between a teacher and children in the lesson plan, it is necessary not only to characterise the educational aspects of the lesson, but also to reflect its educational tasks. So, for example, a lesson plan on the topic “Dneproges” can be drawn up as follows:

1. Checking homework.
2. The teacher's story about the Dnieper rapids and the construction of the Dneproges. Along the way, show on the map and in the drawings the place where the rapids were located, and in the story give vivid examples of overcoming difficulties in the construction of the Dnieper Hydroelectric Station; tell about the destruction caused to the Dneproges by the fascist invaders, and about the heroic work of the Soviet people in restoring the Dneproges. Explain to children the significance of the construction of the Dneproges for the social economy, etc.

3. Reading and explaining an article from the Dneproges textbook.

4. Conversation: reproduction of acquired knowledge. In conclusion of the conversation, emphasise how, under the leadership of the Communist Party and the leader of the working people, Comrade Stalin, nature is conquered and transformed for the benefit of the socialist homeland.

5. Homework: prepare a retelling of the Dneproges textbook article.

Thus, the educational work that the teacher conducts in the classroom is planned by him in one plan with the educational work, in close connection with it.

Reflecting the consistent course of work in the lesson plan, the teacher should proceed from the general didactic requirements for the learning process. The study of new material in most cases begins with the repetition of the knowledge that is organically connected with the new material and is the basis for it. So, for example, before studying the spelling of case endings of nouns, it is necessary to repeat the declension, to exercise children in distinguishing cases; before setting out the question of the working life of the population and the direction and nature of economic development in any zone, it is necessary to invite the flyers to recall the natural conditions of this zone, etc. Repetition is followed by the communication of new knowledge, and then their consolidation and verification.

The lesson plan, in which the teacher intends to introduce new material to the children, can be presented in the following general form:

1. Checking the completion of the assignment given to the children at home (if this assignment was given). Specify what will be checked.

2. Repetition with the student from the material covered, which is necessary for the assimilation of the new. Indicate how the repetition will be conducted: will it be a conversation (about what), or will it be exercises (what, on what material).

3. Explanation of the new material to the children. Indicate the methods and methods of explanation (story, conversation). What will the teacher talk about? What visual material will be used.

4. Reproduction with students of what was explained to them by the teacher. Indicate how the reproduction will be carried out (conversation, text analysis, solution of examples, etc.).

5. Consolidation of the knowledge received by students or by reading the study (what will be read), or by exercises (which ones).

6. Homework. Specify what will be asked.

Of course, this lesson plan outline can only be approximate. Depending on the content of the lesson and the goals set by the teacher, it can be significantly changed. So, for example, repetition at the beginning of a lesson may be closely related to checking students' homework; explanation of new material can be carried out by the teacher in parts, with the reproduction of each part; reproduction after explaining all the material can sometimes be combined with consolidation; the latter is very often the subject of an independent lesson, etc.

In the practice of a teacher, not only individual lessons in communicating new knowledge are very possible, but also lessons in consolidation, repetition and accounting. Often the study of a topic requires a system of lessons that are internally interconnected. In this case, at first, the whole lesson can be devoted to preparing students for the perception of new knowledge, i.e., repeating what underlies the conscious assimilation of new material. Such repetition lessons are conducted approximately according to the following plan:

1. Reproducing in a conversation with the teacher what was previously covered with a passing analysis of examples and performing the necessary exercises on the blackboard.

2. Independent exercises of students under the guidance of a teacher in order to consolidate the reproduced knowledge.

3. Checking the work done, analysis and correction of errors. Homework assignment.

Following this, the lesson of communicating new knowledge can be structured in this way:

1. Checking homework; a survey of students in order to determine the degree of preparation for the upcoming study of new material.
2. Explanation of new material with a gradual transition to a conversation in order to reproduce the knowledge reported by the teacher and actively master it.
3. Homework with preliminary exercises in class.

Following this, a lesson is held to consolidate knowledge, which can be deployed according to the following scheme:

1. Checking homework; a survey of students in order to check and reproduce the knowledge reported in the previous lesson.
2. Exercises based on the learned educational material, first with the teacher, and then on your own.
3. Checking students' independent work, correcting mistakes. Homework to continue work started in class.

After studying the topic, it is sometimes advisable to conduct an accounting lesson, which consists in combining an individual oral survey with frontal written answers on the teacher's assignments.

A written test of students' knowledge can take a whole lesson, for example, solving control problems, examples, a test dictation, an essay, etc. The teacher should also keep in mind that the didactic elements that make up the learning process are closely intertwined: the message of new knowledge is often accompanied by a repetition of the previously covered and its consolidation; testing students' knowledge is essentially and repetition; in consolidation and repetition there are almost always elements of new knowledge, etc.

The necessary equipment for the lesson: instruments, maps, portraits, handouts, etc., as well as books and writing tools - chalk, ink, paper, etc., must be prepared in a timely manner, before the start of the lesson. Items of equipment should be prepared and

placed in the classroom in such a way that their use in the classroom does not require the teacher and students to spend extra time.

General Requirements for the Lesson

In the classroom, the teacher not only teaches, but also educates children. The unity of teaching and upbringing in the classroom is the most important didactic task of the teacher.

Leading children from ignorance to knowledge, revealing to them the ideological essence of the content of the educational material, the teacher lays in their minds the foundations of a correct understanding of the world and educates them in the spirit of communist morality.

Each lesson is a movement forward for students, providing further growth of their knowledge, skills and development of their mental strength, feelings and will.

Separate lessons are only links in the general system of educational work, the goals of which are often not achieved immediately; nevertheless, the educational and upbringing tasks of each lesson should be definite and specific. A properly constructed and conducted lesson ensures planning in the implementation of the educational and educational tasks of the school. The teacher strictly outlines the amount of educational material to be mastered by students in the lesson.

The basis of proper lesson planning is a careful systematic accounting of students' knowledge. Only that teacher can correctly outline the material for the lesson and organise it correctly who knows well how the content of the previous lessons has been assimilated by the children.

Conscious and firm assimilation of educational material is ensured by the strict sequence, accessibility and clarity of its presentation, as well as the activity of its perception by children.

The lesson is a two-way process of interconnected activities of the teacher and students. The success of teaching in the lesson involves the teacher's close observation of the activities of the

children and the full excitation of their attention, interest and thinking. This ensures an active, conscious attitude of students to the word of the teacher, the proper pace of work in the lesson, the concentration of children in the performance of: teacher's tasks.

In imparting knowledge to children, the teacher uses such methods and techniques that enable a concrete perception of the phenomena being studied and a clear understanding of the simplest connections and patterns. At the same time, only those teaching methods and techniques will contribute to the achievement of the objectives of the lesson that have been tested in practice and that correspond to the content of the educational material and the age characteristics of children.

Applying certain teaching methods and techniques in the lesson, the teacher strives to ensure that children easily learn the educational material. However, given that the process of mastering knowledge and skills always requires certain efforts from students, the teacher alleviates the difficulties of learning, but does not remove them, but only helps children to overcome them. Only that will be well mastered by the students, which will require from them a feasible and productive effort of the mind and willpower. The conscious assimilation and strength of the knowledge and skills acquired in the process of learning is ensured not only by the quality of the methodology of their initial formation, but also by all subsequent work of the teacher, aimed at fixing them in the memory of children and at their comprehensive mastery.

The teacher systematically repeats what has been learned in class. Repetition always creates a solid basis for acquiring new knowledge. But often new knowledge, being brought in connection with the previously passed, helps to a deeper and more comprehensive understanding of the past. Therefore, repetition is important not only as a reproduction of what was previously perceived by children in order to fix it in memory, but also as a process of education in the minds of children of an integral system of knowledge.

The practical activity of children in the learning process, manifested in various forms of written and graphic exercises, problem solving, laboratory classes, modeling, manual labor, is an integral part of each lesson. The direct lessons of the teacher with the children alternate in the lesson with the independent work of the students, which either precedes the direct work of the teacher with the class, or follows it. But in all cases, the children's independent work should flow from direct studies with the teacher and in no way diminish his leading role. On the contrary, the development in children of the ability to work independently is possible only on the condition that the teacher systematically guides the performance of independent tasks by the children, explains the methods of work, observes the process of completing the task, corrects mistakes, and helps the children overcome difficulties. Taking into account the strengths and capabilities of the children, the teacher gradually complicates the tasks for independent work, gradually provides the children with more and more independence in their implementation.

The teacher leads the lesson, strictly following the plan and goals set. However, he creatively modifies the methods and techniques of working with children predetermined by him, depending on the conditions in which his activity takes place in the lesson. The degree of understanding by children of the material explained to them, the difficulties that children encounter in mastering new knowledge and skills, the degree of productivity of their independent work - all this often prompts the teacher to make additions and changes to the details of previously planned work. Reasonable creativity in the teacher's work in the classroom always enhances the teacher's influence on children and helps him find more perfect and correct ways to achieve general and particular goals.

Preparing Children for Mastering the Educational Material of the Lesson

The goal of the lesson set by the teacher can be successfully achieved if the children are sufficiently prepared to perceive new knowledge, to perform the exercises or practical work outlined by the teacher. Therefore, at the beginning of the lesson, as mentioned above, part of the time is usually devoted to preparing children for work on the main material of the lesson. Preparation, as a rule, begins with taking into account the knowledge of students. Preliminary accounting of knowledge is necessary when the teacher aims to communicate new knowledge to children, and in the case when the purpose of the lesson is to consolidate or repeat what was learned in previous lessons. A thorough check of knowledge at the beginning of the lesson will not only allow the teacher to purposefully and economically prepare children for the work ahead of them in the lesson, but will also facilitate the resolution of the main tasks of the lesson.

Checking knowledge at the beginning of the lesson gives the teacher confidence in the success of his future work. In the content of training, all links are closely interconnected, and therefore gaps in students' knowledge in any one section of the program often entail poor mastery of the content of other sections. If the teacher intends to introduce new material to the children in the lesson, he first of all checks their knowledge in those sections of the program that are closely related to the topic of the lesson and conditions its acceptance. If the purpose of the lesson is to reinforce or repetition of the previously passed, then by testing knowledge and skills students, the teacher sets the degree of assimilation of individual questions from the past in order to further focus on what is poorly learned by children.

Taking into account the knowledge of students at the beginning of the lesson is usually combined with checking homework. The teacher gives homework assignments for the most part in such a way that the completion of it to a certain extent prepares the

students for the next lesson. In the teaching of the Russian language and arithmetic by good teachers, this can be observed as a system.

When checking written homework, a number of mandatory requirements must be observed. First of all, the teacher should strive to ensure that the whole class is covered by the test. This is achieved by combining the direct verification by the teacher of the task given to the children with their independent verification of their work: the students, one by one, on the call of the teacher, read and explain their homework, the rest of the children follow the answers in their notebooks.

The teacher makes sure that all the mistakes in the homework are corrected by the children. To this end, homework is carefully checked in parts: each example, task, task question, sentence, etc. should be analysed separately. If it turns out that the student called for verification did not make a mistake in one or another part of his homework, then the teacher, by asking questions and viewing individual works, must make sure that this part of the work was done by the rest of the children. If an error is found, the teacher, together with the children, determines how to correct the error, and, going around the desks, looks into the notebook of one or the other student to make sure that the error has been corrected.

Checking the work is combined with the consolidation of what has been passed. To do this, the teacher, when checking individual works, pays special attention to the ability of children to consciously apply the knowledge they have gained, offering to explain why this or that part of the work was done in this way and not otherwise. Answering the teacher's questions, the children repeat the rules, explain individual operations of actions, determine grammatical forms, etc. Without limiting, however, the teacher, if necessary, gives additional tasks, especially if necessary in order to prepare children for further work in the lesson .

So, for example, checking written work for the spelling of adjective endings in the instrumental case and having the task of introducing children to the spelling of adjectives in the prepositional case in the future, the teacher simultaneously exercises students in

the declension of adjectives, suggesting that the word they have selected from the text be put in the prepositional case, changed in accordance with this sentence in the text or come up with a new sentence.

When checking oral homework, the teacher strives to ensure that the largest possible number of students are covered by the survey. In this case, as well as when checking written homework, it is necessary to involve the whole class in the work. If the challenged student's answer is incorrect, inaccurate, or does not exhaust the question, then the teacher calls the stronger student or addresses the whole class with the question. The correct and complete answer should be offered for repetition. This contributes to the consolidation of knowledge.

When checking oral homework, it is useful to use not only the form of a story, but also to introduce elements of a conversation, posing questions to the class in order to clarify the children's knowledge of those facts and the simplest connections that will be necessary for conscious assimilation and subsequent knowledge.

Testing knowledge at the beginning of a lesson, and in particular checking homework, should not be treated superficially, since the quality of this work often determines the quality of all further work of the teacher in the lesson. Each work assigned at home should be the subject of special attention of the teacher, and not only at the time of its verification in the lesson, but also in the future. The results of homework should be carefully studied. The teacher must review the work checked in the class at home. Mistakes in home written work and in children's oral answers should be prevented and corrected in every possible way through individual work with children in the classroom and outside of school hours. Under this condition, homework will be one of the reliable means of improving student achievement.

The teacher's special attention to checking homework in the lesson disciplines children, increases their activity and creates a business-like mood in the class from the very beginning of the lesson, which is very important for the teacher's future work.

After checking the children's homework, the teacher moves on to the topic of the lesson. If the purpose of the lesson is to consolidate what has been learned, then, depending on the content of the material, the teacher either first repeats the knowledge previously communicated to the children on a number of examples, and then proceeds to the exercises, or immediately, having announced the topic of the lesson, proceeds to a conversation on the past or to work on the textbook. If the purpose of the lesson is to communicate new knowledge, then after checking the homework, the teacher proceeds to prepare the children for learning new material. Preparation is expressed either in the repetition of previously acquired knowledge, without which the conscious assimilation of new material is impossible, or in the reproduction of the direct experience of children in order to reveal their ideas about the subject of study. So, if children need to explain the addition of a two-digit number to a two-digit number with a transition through a dozen ($35 + 27$), then, obviously, the teacher should first repeat with the children everything that underlies the formation of this new skill for children, i.e., the decomposition of a two-digit number into its constituent tens and ones ($35 = 30 + 5$; $27 = 20 + 7$, etc.), addition of round tens ($30 + 20$), addition table in the limit of 20, and, finally, addition of round tens with a number consisting of tens and ones. Under this condition, it can be expected that children will not only remember the nature and order of operations when adding two-digit numbers within 100 with the transition through tens, but will also consciously and correctly perform them. However, in order to build the education and further development of this new skill on a solid basis, it is not enough just one repetition before explaining the case of addition, which is new for children. It is also necessary in the process of explanation to require students to independently perform the individual operations included in this skill ($35 = 30 + 5$; $27 = 20 + 7$; $30 + 20$, etc.). In the same way, in the future, when consolidating the skill of adding two-digit ones with the transition through a dozen, it is

necessary to systematically return to its constituent elements and reproduce them in exercises. So, along with solving examples like $35 + 27$, it is also necessary to solve such examples as: $50 + 35$; $7 + 8$; $30 + 7$; $8 + 40$ etc.

The requirement to systematically repeat what has been covered before learning new material remains in all cases: whether the teacher is dealing with the development of any skill, or informs the children and consolidates new knowledge in their memory. At the same time, it is not uncommon for preliminary repetition before explaining new material to choose not only what is closely adjacent to it in content or what is organically included in those new concepts and skills that the teacher forms in children, but also what is important for comparison and comparison. For example, when studying the grammatical forms of any part of speech, the teacher not only exercises children in recognising this grammatical category and its forms, but also compares the studied part of speech with another part of speech already known to children, establishing similarities or differences between them based on comparison. But in order to be successful. To use this technique, the teacher must first repeat with the children everything that he intends to use for comparison and comparison. Only under this condition will this technique help to activate the thinking of children and serve the goals of conscious and lasting assimilation of the material being studied.

Communication of New Knowledge

Children receive knowledge in the classroom by:

- 1) direct visual acquaintance with the subject of study under the guidance of a teacher;
- 2) analysis with the teacher of examples, tasks, texts selected by him;
- 3) descriptions by the teacher of objects, phenomena, events remote in time or place;

4) reading under the guidance of a teacher.

With a direct visual acquaintance with the subject of study, it is necessary that children can observe it in all details, study it comprehensively. To do this, the subject of study should be as close as possible to children. The most perfect method in this regard are excursions and various kinds of laboratory exercises. The value of excursions lies in the fact that children, under the guidance of a teacher, can observe and study objects and phenomena in their natural setting. In laboratory classes, each student is given the opportunity to do experiments himself and study the subject, having it in his hands. For example, plants, insects, minerals, certain properties of air, gases, etc. are studied. However, the application of the laboratory method is not always possible. More often, the teacher has to limit himself to a demonstration - to show an object or phenomenon to the whole class. In these cases, it is necessary that children see clearly what they are learning. To do this, the devices should be placed on a hill, the subject of study, if possible, should be shown, bypassing the desks, given to children, to observe the phenomenon during experiments, call the children to the devices, etc.

When studying objects and phenomena on an excursion or in a lesson, the teacher needs to supervise the observations of children. The first immediate impression of the subject of study in children is usually vague. The teacher, in a conversation with children, should direct their attention to the main thing, the main thing in the subject of study, compare it with other homogeneous objects, help children in understanding its internal aspects, revealing its essential and accidental features. Based on a thorough analysis of the subject of study, children form specific ideas and correct concepts about it. When examining an object with children or observing phenomena, the teacher should not rush to talk about what the children see, but ensure that they independently give answers to the questions posed to them. The teacher's story in this case complements and concludes the conversation, expanding and deepening the

knowledge of children that they received as a result of direct visual acquaintance with the subject of study.

Conversation is also the main method in communicating knowledge by analysing specially selected examples or texts with children. Analysing individual examples, the teacher, through questions, directs the attention of children to signs of difference and similarity, highlights permanent signs, as well as random and private ones, and leads children to an understanding of the general. In this way, arithmetic operations are studied, grammatical forms, spelling rules.

For example, in order to acquaint children with the spelling of dubious consonants at the end of a word, the teacher singles out a group of single-root words from a specially selected text. Let these be the words: oak, oaks, diubok. The teacher draws the attention of children to signs of similarity and difference: related words have a common part (oak), but are different in their semantic meaning. On the basis of sound analysis, signs of similarities and differences are also established: in the word oak, the consonant sound b is not pronounced clearly: in the words oaks, oaks, it is pronounced clearly; in the word oak, the consonant sound b is at the end, in the words oaks, oak, it is inside the word before the vowel. A number of words are also analysed, for example, eye, eye, eye; meadow, meadows, meadow, etc. At the same time, in each group of words, the teacher pays attention to recurring phenomena: the consonant sound at the end of the word is not heard clearly, but inside the word before the vowel it is heard clearly, regardless of which vowel the soy stands before (random sign). Thus, the teacher leads the children to the conclusion of the corresponding spelling rule.

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Let's take another example. To study the commutative property of multiplication, the teacher analyses examples with children: $4 \times 6 = 24$; $6 \times 4 = 24$. It is established that in both cases the products and cohabitants are the same, but the order of the factors is different. Then a number of similar examples are analysed: $5 \times 6 = 30$; $6 \times 5 = 30$; $7 \times 3 = 21$; $3 \times 7 = 21$ etc. They establish the same signs of similarity and difference as in the first pair of examples. At the same time, the teacher draws the attention of the children to the fact that the product and factors in each pair of examples are different (random sign). However, regardless of this, all the considered pairs of examples have one thing in common: the products in each pair of examples are equal, the factors are the same, but differ in their order. By asking questions, the teacher summarises these constant features with the children and draws appropriate conclusions about the commutative property of multiplication.

Generalisation in each of the above examples is formed in the creation of children not immediately, but gradually: the analysis of each particular case is a step towards understanding the general, the analysis is accompanied by a synthesis. Both of these processes are inseparable.

Conversation, only under this condition, can contribute to the formation of concepts, lead children to independent generalisations and conclusions, if it is correctly constructed. The main feature of

conversation as a teaching method is the activity of children's thinking, excited and directed by the questions of the teacher. Therefore, the achievement of the final goals of the conversation depends on the quality of the questions. The teacher's questions should be meaningful, i.e. contain a certain idea. They must be consistent, i.e., have an internal connection between themselves and direct the thinking of children to the ultimate goal of the conversation. The teacher's questions should be short, precise, and correct in form. Each question should contain only the necessary words, from which its content is completely clear. Questions should be simple, accessible to every student in the class.

Questions should be asked in such a way that the children can think about the answer. Therefore, having proposed a question, it is necessary to make a short pause and not demand answers from the children immediately after the question. In order to cover the conversation with the whole class, the teacher should ask as many children as possible, not linger for a long time on the questioning of one student, while forgetting the rest. Questions should be asked to the whole class so that each student is ready for an answer, so that the thought and attention of the children to the subject of the conversation does not weaken for a minute.

However, one should not strive to ensure that the children absolutely understand everything that the teacher intends to tell them through conversation. If the children do not have a basis for answers, then one should not seek them, but it is better to explain this part of the material, and, making sure that the children understand, continue the conversation. In order to make the content of the conversation more accessible to children, the teacher should, where possible, precede and accompany his questions with visual explanations, using pictures, tables, drawings on the board, etc. Thus, when communicating knowledge by analysing children of specially selected examples, tasks, texts, the conversation can turn into a teacher's story, which is either the basis for the conversation, or an addition to what the children have learned from it.

The main method of communicating knowledge about objects, phenomena or events remote in time or place is the teacher's story. The teacher should use storytelling as an active teaching method. A story, like a conversation, can excite the thinking of children and contribute to the formation of concrete ideas and correct concepts, if it satisfies certain requirements.

The story must be consistent. Its parts, speaking one after another, must be logically connected with each other. At the same time, the main thing in the story should not be obscured by the secondary, but, on the contrary, emphasised and brought to the consciousness of children through careful explanation.

The story should be closely connected with the experience of the children and the knowledge they had previously acquired. It should be remembered that new ideas will only be clear and strong when they come into contact with the ideas and concepts that the children have.

The story must be precise and clear. Children should present the subject of study with all the essential features with the same vivacity with which the teacher himself thinks.

The story should be specific, simple and accessible to children in the form of presentation. It should not contain uncommon or cumbersome, difficult-to-understand expressions. The language of the story should be distinguished by the correct pronunciation of vowels, the correctness of stress and pronunciation. The specificity of the story is achieved by introducing into it figurative words and expressions, comparisons, comparisons of what is known to children with the unknown, first-person narration, a dialogical method of presentation, etc. The story, if possible, should be illustrated with pictures, drawings from the textbook, reading excerpts from works of art. The use of visual aids in the storytelling process gives the teacher the opportunity to introduce elements of the conversation into the story. This enlivens the work of the teacher and excites the thinking of the children. Using a visual aid, the teacher, through questions, should focus the attention of the children on the main

thing and, based on this, give in the description a lively and clear image of the phenomenon or event being studied.

The story must be emotional. Children will only experience the story if the tone of their speech the teacher shows a lively participation in what he is telling. This is of great educational value. Thus, for example, a teacher's inspired story about the successes of our socialist construction or about the heroic deeds of our people in the fight against the interventionists develops in children a sense of patriotism and stimulates its manifestation in their social behaviour.

When communicating knowledge to children, regardless of which method the teacher uses, the disadvantage may be too large a volume of ideas and a schematic presentation. A large number of representations can be an obstacle to the formation of concepts. In this case, it is difficult for children to choose the necessary representations and establish the necessary connection between them. The abundance of ideas does not provide a depth of understanding of the essence of knowledge and can easily lead to superficial assimilation. Schematic presentation can lead to the fact that children do not learn the main, the main thing in its inherent details. The depth of knowledge depends on the ability of the teacher to single out the main thing when communicating and keep the thoughts of the children on it. Each idea that arises in the process of presentation should help the assimilation of the main thing. Everything should be connected in a strict system, without missing the necessary details, but also without unnecessary details for a given age.

In the process of presenting new material, especially in such subjects as history, geography and natural science, it is sometimes useful for the teacher to refer to the text of the textbook in order to correlate his story with the presentation of the educational material that is given in the textbook. It is especially appropriate to do this when the educational material is difficult for children and self-learning it from a textbook requires preliminary reading it with the teacher.

Consolidation of Knowledge

The knowledge and skills acquired by children in the classroom should be well consolidated. A solid consolidation of what has been learned is one of the main conditions that ensure the completeness and stability of the knowledge and skills acquired by children. Before you begin to consolidate the new material, you need to make sure that it is learned by the children. You can't let children read on their own from a textbook about what was presented in the lesson if they didn't understand a lot from the teacher's story, or you can't exercise children in any arithmetic operation if they haven't learned how and in what order it is performed. Therefore, the first moment in consolidating the material should be the reproduction by children of what was reported in the conversation or what the teacher talked about. So, before starting the exercises in the arithmetic textbook, it is necessary that the children, under the guidance of the teacher, independently repeat the solution of those examples on the basis of which the explanation was given; or, for example, before independent work on a history textbook, one should repeat on the questions everything that the teacher talked about. In this case, special attention should be paid to weak and average students, since the degree of assimilation of new material by them can be an indicator of the readiness of the class to carry out work to consolidate the past. If during playback it turns out that the children do not understand the material clearly enough or have not mastered individual questions from it at all, then the teacher needs to re-state the topic of the lesson in whole or in part, and then reproduce it again with children the knowledge communicated to them. Playback can be completed writing in a notebook conclusions, names, dates and sketching experiments, tables and diagrams that the teacher used when communicating new knowledge.

Some independent work is very simple, and children can easily learn it without any preliminary exercises with the teacher. So, solving examples in arithmetic, copying some text from the blackboard or from a textbook, reading an easy story, etc., are

understandable forms of work that do not require special explanations or their initial development under the guidance of a teacher. Other forms of independent work, such as, for example, copying or reading complicated by assignments, solving complex problems, working with a contour map, etc., require not only a detailed explanation of the teacher, but also their obligatory conduct under his guidance. For example, copying a text in which a given word needs to be inserted, with changing it by cases, children can successfully perform if they have mastered the declension of this part of speech, if they previously, under the guidance of a teacher, copying off two or three sentences, understand the order of work, and namely: first you need to read the sentence, inserting the missing word, then determine the case of the given word on the question, remember 'or consult the table of declensions, which ending it should have in this case. Then read the sentence again and write it off without looking at the book. In the same way, when consolidating what has been passed through the textbook, when the task is given to read the article on their own and answer the questions, the teacher must indicate to the children that they must first read the questions, and then the entire article, and only after that find in the article the place where the answer is given. to the first question. After reading this place, you need to make a complete answer to this question, and then move on to the second, third and other questions. It is useful to show this order of work to children practically, in a direct analysis of two or three articles with them.

Before some independent written work, it is necessary to carry out preliminary oral work. So, for example, written grammar exercises in the first two grades and the most difficult exercises in grades III and IV should first be done orally; the compilation of written answers to questions is preceded by the compilation of oral answers, etc. In these cases, the work of children can be divided into two parts. For example, some of the most difficult grammar exercises can be done as follows: first, the teacher explains the task and shows with one or two examples how it should be done, after

which the children, under the guidance of the teacher, perform the exercise orally, and then proceed to independently write it.

Each work that is given to consolidate knowledge should correspond to the strengths of children. It should not be very easy and not very difficult in relation to the level of knowledge and development of this class. Works can be subdivided in relation to their volume according to the individual characteristics and academic performance of children; weak students at first cannot do as much as strong ones; on the other hand, excellent students should be given the opportunity to do more than what is required of the whole class.

When consolidating knowledge in the second half of the lesson, the teacher should keep in mind that the performance of children decreases by the end of the lesson. This circumstance must be taken into account when determining not only the amount of independent work, but also when determining the form of the task. Monotonous forms of work tire children more quickly than diverse ones. Therefore, when consolidating, for example, the knowledge of any arithmetic operation, one should not reduce the exercises only to solving examples, but it is necessary to diversify the independent work of children, giving the solution of simple tasks for these actions, calculations from tables, etc. Similarly, to consolidate knowledge any grammatical form can be given as an exercise grammatical analysis, the corresponding written work on the grammar textbook, creative work using this grammatical form, etc. e. However, one should not be overly carried away by the introduction of various forms of exercises in the same lesson. During the lesson, you can do no more than two or three different exercises. Otherwise, the consolidation of the knowledge communicated to children may turn out to be superficial.

In the process of doing exercises on their own or repeating from a textbook, the teacher needs to carefully monitor the work of the children, guiding and supporting it. One should not suppress by one's intervention the independence of children in the performance of tasks by them, but one must come to their aid in time in

overcoming the difficulties of work. If the teacher notices that the children repeat the same mistake or experience the same difficulty, then the work should be interrupted and the whole class should be given appropriate instructions. Pay special attention to weak students. The teacher should prevent their mistakes in every possible way, giving additional explanations, facilitating their tasks in one way or another, arming them with various kinds of reference material, samples of correctly completed examples, etc.

Homework

The last step of the lesson is usually a homework assignment. The teacher must plan in advance the content, volume and nature of the children's homework and consistently prepare students for it. Sufficient time should be allowed to explain the task. You cannot give tasks at the same time as the call. Children's homework is of great importance for consolidating knowledge and developing skills if it is properly organised. The first condition for the productivity of homework is its correct choice. At home, children can only be given such work that they can do without outside help. Therefore, it is not necessary to give home learning of any new material. The homework assignment in content and form should partially repeat the work that was carried out with the teacher in the lesson. So, for example, to consolidate the received lesson in knowledge of arithmetic can be given at home to solve some of the examples and problems that were solved with the teacher in the class, and add a few new examples and problems. In the same way, grammar exercises should be given at home, similar to those that were performed by children in the lesson. In other subjects, homework is given a repetition of the textbooks of the material that was passed with the teacher. Stories that were not read in the classroom can be given at home if they are accessible to children in content and form. Children should not be overburdened with household chores. In the first two grades, homework should be calculated for no more than three-quarters of an hour of work, and in the upper grades for an

hour and a quarter. When giving homework, the teacher should carefully explain the task to the children. If this kind of work performed in the classroom, it is necessary to remind the children the order of its implementation. If in any respect work may present difficulties for children, then examples should be shown how to overcome them. To this end, it is useful to do part of the task in the classroom, especially with weak students.

But at the end of the lesson, the teacher must be aware: did he make any mistakes and blunders, did he manage to achieve the intended goals, what did the children get as a result of the lesson? The teacher should write down his comments in order to take them into account when planning and conducting subsequent lessons.

ORGANISATION OF EDUCATIONAL WORK

Preparation for the School Year

Good preparation of the teacher for the academic year is an indispensable condition for the success of his forthcoming work. Only that teacher can be sure of the positive results of his work, who has carefully studied its content and methodology. The time after the end of the school year before vacation and after returning from: start-up to the start of classes should be used by the teacher to study programs, textbooks, methods, to plan future work and prepare the equipment necessary for classes.

Preparation for classes in the new academic year, the teacher should begin with the study of the curriculum, programs and textbooks in all subjects of the class with which he will have to work.

Getting acquainted with the curriculum, the teacher determines the number of lessons for each subject in each quarter of the academic year, distributes the Russian language lessons according to the main types of work - reading, grammar and spelling, presentation, and composition, for example:

Number of lessons per quarter of the academic year

Subjects (I class)	Number of hours per week	I quarter	II quarter	III quarter	IV quarter
1. Russian language	12	108	84		
a) reading	6	54	42		
b) grammar and spelling	5	45	35	etc.	Etc.
c) exposition and composition	1	9	7		
2. Arithmetic etc.					

Such preliminary work on the curriculum will make it easier for the teacher to plan the program material in the future. Determining the number of lessons for each subject, and for the Russian language—for each section of the work (reading, grammar and spelling, presentation and composition) will help to correctly distribute the educational material over the quarters of the academic year.

Studying the content of the upcoming work, the teacher first gets acquainted with the educational material as a whole in order to clearly imagine the whole path of his work with children from the beginning to the end of the school year. When preparing for classes with children, one should not be limited to studying the educational material in parts, as it progresses, without a preliminary general acquaintance with it. Such preparation usually leads to hard-to-correct errors, especially in the distribution of educational material over time. In order to avoid this, when preparing for the academic year, the teacher needs to carefully study the programs and explanatory notes to them, think over the specific tasks of teaching each subject and get acquainted with the content of the educational material. Then you need to carefully review the textbook, understand the volume and system of arrangement of the material. Only after that you can proceed to the implementation of specific work related to the preparation for the next classes with children. The teacher again returns to the programs and textbooks and gets acquainted in detail with the educational material that he will have to study with the children in the first quarter. Using the programs, he determines the amount of knowledge and skills that children should master at the end of the first quarter of the year, carefully studies the textbook, analyses its individual sections and topics, paying special attention to the ideological side of the content, thinks over methods and techniques for studying educational material, referring to methodological guides, journal articles and using materials that reflect his own experience and the best experience of other teachers. Along with this, the teacher also outlines specific material for the first lessons: articles, stories for reading, texts,

tasks, examples for exercises, visual aids, etc., and also designs excursions, observations and various kinds of practical exercises with children.

Mastering the educational material should be the subject of special attention of the teacher. When studying the content of individual topics or sections of the program using textbooks and manuals, it is necessary to outline the most difficult material, as well as write down definitions, conclusions, draw up brief descriptions, etc. extraction and use of each mineral. When studying history textbook material, it is useful to write down dates, names of figures, brief information about historical facts, etc.

Not limited to this, it is necessary to study some textbook material practically. The teacher himself needs to perform the most difficult exercises in grammar and spelling, solve difficult problems, do experiments, make excursions, etc. All this will allow in the future to correctly approach the study of the most difficult topics and sections of the program with children.

The work of the teacher in studying the content of the program and the textbook for each subject should be completed by drawing up a calendar plan, which establishes the order of studying with children not only sections and topics of the program, but also individual subtopics. Each section or major topic in the calendar plan is presented in a number of separate, sequentially arranged and logically completed pieces of the program (subtopics), the study of which is determined in time. Thus, the calendar plan determines the study of program material in a strict system and on time. The presence of a calendar plan for each teacher should be considered mandatory.

The calendar plan is drawn up for a quarter for each subject separately. If the teacher has thoroughly worked on the educational material, then drawing up a plan will not present any difficulties for him. In the calendar plan, the teacher indicates the following: sections, topics of the program, which he must pass during the quarter; excursions, practical work that he must conduct in connection with the study of educational material; control work

that will be carried out by him on the study of individual sections and topics of the program; the number of training hours for each work planned in the plan; terms of studying sections and topics of the program.

When recording the calendar plan, the teacher can use the following scheme:

The content of the work		Amount of time	Deadlines	Notes on Plan Implementation
Themes and sub-themes of the program	Excursions and practical classes			

When drawing up calendar plans, it is necessary to proceed from the programs and the textbook, while taking into account the results of previous work. The distribution of time in the calendar plan, first of all, should be based on taking into account the peculiarities of work in this class (the degree of preparation of children, the need to strengthen classes in certain sections of the program in order to correct the shortcomings of previous work, etc.). However, this should not be at the expense of the completeness and quality of the study of educational material. The implementation of programs and the strength of knowledge must be ensured by the teacher under all conditions.

When drawing up calendar plans, it is necessary to pay special attention to ensuring that in each academic quarter there is a full opportunity for a thorough repetition of what has been covered.

Calendar plans are submitted for consideration and approval to the head of the school no later than a week before the start of the quarter. In the future, the teacher, with the knowledge of the head of the school, can make certain additions and changes to the calendar plans, if necessary, for example, the results of work for the past quarter, the teacher's illness, etc.

The calendar plan is the basis for thematic plans. Each topic outlined in it gets its expression in the system of lessons. The teacher will easily expand the topic into lessons if it is not large in volume. Therefore, when separating logical parts (subtopics) from a section or a larger topic of the program, one should strive to ensure that they are designed for no more than 4-5 lessons. It is almost impossible to give the correct lesson distribution of the material at once throughout the entire section or a large topic. Such planning can only be conditional. When planning a topic, it is important to determine exactly the content of each lesson.

When planning a topic, it is necessary first of all to determine the specific goals that will be realised as a result of studying it with 'children. This means that the teacher must establish, guided by the program and the textbook, which basic concepts should be learned by the children and what kind of cause-and-effect relationships should be brought to an understanding, as well as what skills should be developed in children.

The ideological essence of the content of the topic for the teacher should be completely clear. The topic plan indicates: 1) educational and upbringing goals for studying the topic, 2) lesson content of the topic, 3) excursions and practical exercises on the topic, 4) accounting and repetition of what has been covered on the topic, 5) equipment for classes on the topic.

Thematic plans are recorded in a special notebook. The teacher uses them in the future when planning individual lessons.

In preparation for the new school year, the teacher draws up lesson plans for all subjects for the first week of classes. These lessons are mainly devoted to reviewing the previous year. It should not be forgotten that the study of a new course in each subject will be successful only when the children are sufficiently prepared for it. Over the summer, children forget a lot of what they went through in the previous school year. Therefore, before starting to study something new, it is necessary to strengthen the foundation on which this study will be based. It is necessary to pay the most serious attention to the repetition of what has been passed in the

Russian language and arithmetic, and when planning, it should be given as many lessons as it takes to improve literacy and numeracy skills. raise students to the level at which they were at the end of the past academic year, that is, in the spring, when students are transferred to the next class. With special care, it is necessary to select material for exercises and to test the knowledge and skills of students. Checking students' knowledge and repetition lessons for each subject should be closely related and represent a well-thought-out system.

Simultaneously with the preparation of plans, a schedule of classes should also be prepared. When drawing up the schedule, you must be guided by the following requirements:

1. The schedule must strictly correspond to the schedule of hours of the curriculum.

2. The schedule should indicate the days of the week, the hours of classes, the names of the lessons. In indicating the duration of lessons and breaks, the teacher must be guided by the established norms.¹

3. During the school week, lessons should alternate in such a way that the most difficult of them fall on the second and third days of the week. The fifth lessons should be timed to the same days.

4. During the day, the lessons in the schedule are distributed so that the Russian language (grammar) and arithmetic are placed no further than the third lesson. The only exception is reading lessons.

5. Double lessons are not allowed.

Along with the planning of educational material, the teacher prepares the equipment necessary for classes with children. In the Russian language—a cool split alphabet, cash registers with letters and numbers for each student, pictures and didactic material for the development of speech, tables—for grammar and spelling; in arithmetic—sticks, an abacus for teaching numbering, an arithmetic box, class abacus, tables for mental counting; in history and

¹ See Curriculum, page 31.

geography—pictures and maps; in natural science—collections, paintings, tables, handouts for the study of plants and minerals, etc.

Preparing a teacher for the new academic year will require a lot of time and effort from him, especially if the teacher does not have sufficient teaching experience. However, despite all the difficulties mentioned above, the work must be completed in full. Preparation for the new academic year is not seen as a personal matter of the teacher—it is his responsibility.

Preparing for the academic year, the teacher should not lock himself into the narrow framework of individual work. It should not be forgotten that with the existing class-lesson system of classes in our school, which obliges each teacher to bring his class to the end of school, the teacher every four years has to deal with various programs and textbooks every year. His personal experience of educational work in a particular class may be insufficient because it is repeated only after three years. Therefore, in preparing for the upcoming work in the new academic year, the teacher needs to get acquainted in detail with the experience of the best teachers in the past academic year. This can help the teacher and the school in the person of the head, and the methodological association.

First Days of Classes

Proper organisation of work with children in the first days of classes is of great importance for all further work of the teacher. The teacher's work with seven-year-olds is especially responsible.

The first day for a child who has just entered school remains in his memory for life. Therefore, it is very important that this day be bright and joyful for him. Senior students, under the direction of the head of the school, should carefully decorate the school, and especially the classroom intended for toddlers. The meeting of children by the head of the school, teachers and senior comrades and the first acquaintance with the school, the class and its environment ends with games and singing. Aging schoolchildren involve new little comrades in their team. The attractive appearance

of the classroom, cleanliness and order in the school, the friendly attitude of teachers and senior students from the very first days of teaching arouse children's interest in school and bring up a loving attitude.

Children who entered school gradually get used to its rules and regime. First of all, each of the children must know their place. On the first day of classes, the teacher sits the children at their desks according to their height and shows how to sit in the lesson. Then he meets the children. Children should know the name of the teacher and how to address him. The teacher tells the children about the school, about its rules, about how to behave, how to treat your comrades.

The teacher takes special care with the physical education of children. At each lesson, he carefully observes how the children sit at their desks, corrects the wrong fit, monitors the correct position of the body when writing, preventing the curvature of the spine.

Taking into account the relative weakness of the body of seven-year-old children, the teacher during the first half of the year, and even further, arranges small 5-7-minute breaks in the middle of the lesson, which he fills with physical exercises and light games that do not require leaving the class. For the same purpose, during breaks, he organises outdoor games for children. On warm and clear days, especially in autumn and spring, the teacher conducts separate lessons in the fresh air. After lessons, in good weather, he arranges walks with children and holds mass games in the open air.

Seven-year-olds are usually shy and shy. It's hard to get them to talk. But they often willingly enter into a conversation and talk about themselves if it comes to something close and interesting to them. Therefore, in conversations about the summer spent, about games and entertainment, about the family, about favourite animals, it is easiest to "untie" the language of children.

The development of children's speech, the expansion and refinement of their vocabulary from the very first steps of training should be the subject of special attention of the teacher and the basis of all his activities with children. The development of

observation in children must be closely connected with the development of speech. Observing objects and phenomena of the world around them with children, the teacher teaches children correctly call them, thus linking words new to children with specific content. For the same purpose, the teacher carefully furnishes classes with visual aids, makes excursions with the children, and gives the children small assignments to observe nature.

Systematically monitoring the development of children's speech, their answers and stories, the teacher carefully corrects the hasty and sometimes ill-considered answers of the children, teaches them to answer accurately and completely, teaches them to use words correctly and tell them consistently.

Children of the seven years do not have sustainable attention, they have no sufficient fit.

Of great importance for the development of attention in children, educating them diligence, perseverance in work is ribbed, colouring, cutting out of paper, modelling, applications. The teacher devotes time to these activities not only at the drawing lesson, but also at lessons in other subjects, especially in the Russian language lessons. Introduction to the lessons of this kind of occupation is one of the reliable measures to prevent fatigue in children. However, one should not forget that drawing, cutting, modelling and other activities of this kind are introduced into the lessons of the Russian language or arithmetic as a method of achieving the goals of the lesson. Therefore, the content of these classes should be closely related to the educational material.

Before entering school, the interests of children were most satisfied with their play activities. Elements of this activity can also take place in the classroom. But they must be strictly subordinated to educational goals.

The introduction of various kinds of didactic material in the lessons of arithmetic and the Russian language gives the teacher the opportunity to make classes for children easier and more interesting and at the same time productive, since the use of visual material in various forms makes it easier for children to master the skills of

initial reading, writing and counting. So, for example, exercises in a Russian language lesson in finding or composing words for pictures depicted on lotto cards, and, conversely, reading words given on lotto cards and correlating the corresponding pictures to them is a useful and at the same time exciting activity for children. . In the same way, the widespread use of various kinds of counting material in arithmetic lessons: pebbles, sticks, acorns, etc., as well as the introduction of picture lotto, illustrations for tasks, will help the teacher make arithmetic lessons entertaining, accessible in content and successfully solving the main problem of formation in children the initial concept of number and arithmetic operations.

In the first grade there may be children of eight years of age, more developed than seven-year-olds. Focusing in his work on seven-year-olds, the teacher must nevertheless pay attention to children of eight years of age, offering them more difficult questions and tasks in the lessons and giving more complex assignments.

The head of the school and the teacher leading the class must create all the conditions for the educational work with the seven-year-olds to proceed successfully. Children should always be given help and support where they themselves are not able to cope.

The manifestation of attention to children and care for them on the part of the teacher is an indispensable condition for educating children in love and affection for school, and hence for learning.

Students of grades II-IV usually get a little weaned from school rules over the summer and forget a lot of what they have already learned and what they got used to at school. Therefore, from the very first days of classes, it is necessary to take measures to create a solid regime in training sessions. Children should be reminded of their time of arrival at school, their behaviour in class and during recess, their daily routine, and so on.

As mentioned above, a thorough repetition of the material passed in the previous class at the beginning of the year is of great importance for successful training. It is safe to say that the lag, which is very often found in children in the first half of the year, is a consequence of poor preparation of students for learning new

program material. Of course, it is not necessary to repeat everything that has been passed, but only what children discover ignorance in, and what is the basis for studying educational material in the first quarter. Therefore, repetition at the beginning of the year should follow the students' knowledge. Special attention should be paid to checking the knowledge and skills that children came to school with after the holidays. Here we should not limit ourselves to conducting only one control work, but rather carefully analyse the completeness and depth of children's knowledge and the stability of their skills, especially in the field of reading, writing and counting.

Having identified less prepared children in this way, the teacher organises separate classes with them. This will undoubtedly be one of the most effective measures to prevent them from falling behind during the school year.

At the beginning of the year, it is also necessary to organise in high school:

1) the work of the pioneer squad members and drawing up a plan for pioneer work in the autumn period (the head of the school together with the pioneer leader);

2) duties to monitor cleanliness and order in the classroom and the storage of classroom teaching materials;

3) the work of the children's library (familiarisation with children's literature and drawing up recommendation lists of books for reading, introducing readers' diaries, etc.);

4) maintaining a nature calendar, issuing a wall newspaper, working circles, choir, orchestra, etc.

All these activities, skilfully conducted by the head of the school and teachers, will contribute to the creation of a friendly school team and will begin to further develop interest in learning, while at the same time leading to an increase in academic performance and strengthening discipline in the school.,

Taking Students' Knowledge into Account

"The basis of accounting for school work should be based on the current individual, systematically conducted accounting of students' knowledge. The teacher should carefully study each student in the course of academic work."¹

In primary education, systematic careful consideration of students' knowledge is particularly important. Accounting is carried out not only to assess the knowledge of individual students, but also to determine the degree of success of teaching the class as a whole.

The state of students' knowledge determines to a certain extent the planning of educational work. An experienced teacher builds the classroom work based not only on the overall learning objectives and program requirements, but also on the specific learning outcomes of each student.

The teacher makes a judgment about the degree of success of learning as a result of careful testing of students' knowledge, carried out systematically, on a daily basis in the form of answering teacher's questions, telling a story on a given topic, solving problems and examples orally and in writing, reading, analysing texts, and performing various kinds of oral and written exercises.

There are three main forms of student knowledge testing: student survey, written knowledge testing, and knowledge accounting through fluid observations.

The teacher usually conducts an oral survey of students at the beginning of the lesson. The purpose of this survey is to test children's knowledge of the completed material. In these cases, the teacher gives marks for the answers.

After communicating new knowledge, the teacher also conducts an oral survey of children. At the same time, children convey the content of the educational material explained to them

¹ From the resolution of the Central Committee of the CPSU (b) of August 25, 1932 'On educational programs and regime in primary and secondary schools'.

either in the form of a coherent story, or in the form of answers to the teacher's questions. The form of an oral survey in this case is determined by the degree of complexity and volume of the material. As a rule, children reproduce complex material based on teacher's questions. When replaying the knowledge just given by the teacher, marks for children's answers are usually not given. The teacher must first guide the children through the entire process of learning, i.e., introduce them to new learning material, then reproduce it in the children's memory, and finally consolidate it through exercises or learning from the textbook. Only then does the teacher usually begin to take into account the students' knowledge by conducting an oral survey or written work for this purpose.

But sometimes the teacher has to deviate from this rule. This is usually the case when individual students, in the process of communicating knowledge to them or during the initial reproduction of it, give the teacher excellent answers, which should be rewarded with an appropriate mark.

An oral survey of children should be conducted in such a way that the entire class takes part in the work. Good answers should help children repeat and consolidate what they have learned. Weak and erroneous answers should be filled in and corrected here in the classroom with the help of a teacher and stronger students.

If the teacher asks the student to answer a single question, the student usually answers from the spot. When answering a series of questions or when the teacher demands a coherent story, the student approaches the teacher's desk or blackboard when called. At the same time, it is necessary to teach children to hold themselves in such a way that it is convenient for the class to listen to them. The quality of students' responses is also partly affected by the clarity of the teacher's requirements.

The teacher should teach the children how to respond in class, and draw the class's attention to the exemplary responses of individual students. Children should know in which cases they are required to give a complete answer, and in which cases they can give a short answer. They should know that when telling a story, you

must follow the sequence, use words correctly, build sentences correctly, and accurately express your thoughts.

Classroom writing is one of the main forms of testing students' knowledge. Such works include test dictation, copying, grammatical analysis, presentation, composition, problem solving and examples.

Written test papers are usually given after completing each section of the program and before the end of the quarter.

In the lower grades, written test papers are mostly given an incomplete lesson, in the upper grades — a full one. It is necessary to analyse the results of written control work with children as soon as possible. It is best to do this the very next day, when the children have not yet forgotten their work. In this case, as experience shows, work on mistakes made by children takes place with their unflagging attention and interest.

Control works should not only be carefully checked, but also studied and analysed. These works of children give the teacher the opportunity to establish the degree of success of learning and outline the further way to improve the quality of students' knowledge.

If the teacher notices some common shortcomings in the children's test papers, he pays special attention to the repetition of the corresponding sections or topics of the program. Typical mistakes in individual works set the teacher the task of organising purposeful individual work with children. When checking and analysing test papers, it is useful to note in a special notebook improvements in the knowledge and skills of individual students, as well as shortcomings that need to be corrected.

Each student's written work should be evaluated. Most of the works, including all control ones, are evaluated with marks. For some works, the teacher sometimes writes his own comments, for example: 'I began to write well', 'Try to write even better', 'Write the letters correctly' (in the margins it is indicated which letters the student should learn to write correctly), 'Remember the rule well' (the teacher indicates which spelling rule the student should remember), 'Correct mistakes in words' (words are indicated), 'Think

through and write sentences with these words' , etc. Such comments have a very good effect on children and encourage them to work independently to correct their mistakes.

Assessment of knowledge is a very important moment in educational work. Children are very sensitive to grades. Poor grades make them sad. This, of course, is quite natural: And it should be so. But bad and good grades should be given in such a way that they encourage the child to do better work.

When getting a bad or mediocre grade, the student should always know exactly what mistakes they have made, what shortcomings and gaps in knowledge and skills they should correct and what to do next. The marks should reflect an objective picture of the state of students ' knowledge. In no case should the ratings be overstated or lowered. Both are bad for business. When grades are overestimated, the state, parents, and children are deceived about the actual level of knowledge of students; a visible picture of well-being is created, and the struggle for genuine knowledge is weakened. When grades are lowered, it also turns out to be a deception that is harmful to the state, and, in addition, children are not stimulated to better work, but on the contrary, their desire to work weakens.

Marks for a quarter are determined by the totality of all grades of the student's work for a given period of time. They should not represent the arithmetic mean of all the marks received by the student: the later ones are crucial. The final grade should reflect the actual state of knowledge of the student in the program of the accounting period. In this regard, the evaluation of the results of final control works is of great importance.

In the characteristics of the student's academic performance for a quarter and for a year, the teacher notes the student's shortcomings in knowledge and skills in the given subject, as well as its positive aspects. With an excellent assessment of the student's knowledge in subjects, it should also be noted which data allow him to study successfully, which aspects of his personality deserve special attention for their further development.



Большая перемена

Main recess

The teacher's attention is drawn to all students, but most often to those who do not have time. The teacher looks for the reasons for their failure in the setting of teaching, in the family environment and in the environment, and often in the student himself.

Taking under the supervision of an underachiever, the teacher conducts systematic monitoring of him during school work, during Recess, and in extracurricular activities. When observing, the teacher has a specific task in mind, for example: to observe how the student learns and understands the material presented in the lesson. This observation will be associated with the analysis of the student's responses, with the study of his speech, logical thinking, concreteness of his ideas and concepts of it, etc.

When interviewing a student, the teacher not only determines the level, strength and depth of their knowledge, but also notes whether they are systematically preparing lessons, what is easy for them, and what is difficult for them.

The teacher does not limit his observations to stating, recording the external manifestations of the child's personality, but finds the reasons for them and builds educational work in accordance with this.

The teacher writes his observations on individual students (as well as on the entire class) in a diary, and only the most valuable facts of observations are recorded in the diary.

The order and form of recording the facts of observations in the diary may vary, depending on the purpose of the observation and the conditions in which it is conducted. In addition to recording individual facts, both positive and negative, it is necessary to note in the diary the activities of an educational and educational nature carried out by the teacher, and the results that they give.

As an example, we can cite excerpts from the diary of a teacher of one of the Moscow schools.¹

¹ From the experience of school No. 169, Moscow, described by V. I. Kufaev.

“For example, the Primer is not interested in M. When children work independently, read the page of the primer that they have passed with me and make up words from the letters of the split alphabet, he pushes the book away, looks at the wall and does not work. At home, M. does not take up the book at all. In class, M. rarely raises his hand, gets up slowly and stubbornly silent when challenged, and sometimes whispers: “Never heard of it”. He doesn't care about failure or success.

Events. I decided to sit down with M. and help him every time the children read and work with the alphabet on their own. We examined several pictures from the primer with M., and told him their contents. She read the words with M. from the primer; covering each word she read with a piece of paper, she made M. compose the word from memory and then check it from the primer. M. became interested in this work. He agreed to prepare a story at home based on the picture of the primer and compose a few words from memory and write them down.

Result: M. prepared his homework well. I brought a picture from home. We reviewed it with him and made a short story out of it.”

“N. M. especially likes to make up stories based on pictures. It's active when I'm doing this work with the class. But still shows no interest in reading.

For example, in order to attract more people to work, M. often called to read the text of the primer on a cool poster with a coloured picture. I gave the boy the book 'Nursery' by Alexandrov and suggested that he come up with a short story for each picture and tell it in class.

Result: M. completed the task and got an excellent mark.

Event. I suggested that M. also prepare a good primer for the next lesson. M. readily agreed and asked me to give him another picture book.”

“N. M. completed the task mediocre. I made a few mistakes when reading it. Noting this, I still said that M. began to read better. M. worked with passion in the lesson with the split alphabet.”

Three months later in the diary of the same teacher about the boy M. was written:

“N. M. likes to read picture books. In the book for class reading, he reads illustrated stories with great attention. M. likes, after reading a story, to retell it from the picture. He adds a lot of his own stuff, and he does it well. His speech had improved markedly, and he could read better as well.

Event. I support M.'s interest in reading by talking to him about the books I've read. I constantly demand that M. complete tasks, but at the same time I make sure that they are feasible and only gradually complicate them; thus, I give M. the opportunity to believe in his abilities. I involve the boy in social work, noting each of his achievements. To do this, I have included M. in the group of more active friends, but I limit the number of tasks to keep M.'s attention focused. it wasn't scattered.

Result. Initially, following the example of his comrades, and then acting independently, M. develops his capabilities. He gradually strengthens his sense of purpose in his work.

M. finished the year as an average student.”

Often, the reasons for a student's failure are hidden in his emotional experiences.

Student S. was very weak in arithmetic. In class, S. was always passive, uncommunicative, and not cheerful. The teacher often thought about the reason for poor academic performance of S. Once, talking with him, she learned that he was completely alone: his father died at the front, his mother was not interested in him, he had no comrades.

The teacher began to visit his mother and talked a lot with her in order to bring her closer to her son. She made sure that the mother became attentive to the boy. This noticeably affected S., he became more lively and active in the classroom, became interested in arithmetic, and asked to be given additional tasks.

The attention of the teacher and mother changed the boy's attitude to learning.

Of course, children should be monitored not only in the classroom, but also outside of the classroom (during recess and extracurricular activities) and outside of school — during excursions, when the student performs practical work and social assignments, as well as in the family and in the circle of friends.

In addition to the observation data, the teacher uses to characterise students their workbooks, essays, drawings, doctor's data on the state of health, data from the supervision of the counsellor, and parents. If the teacher's personal observations are not sufficient to draw a conclusion about the underlying causes of a particular child's behaviour, it is recommended to additionally talk with the student, visit his home, and talk about him with parents and relatives.

At the end of the year, the teacher organises the materials of his observations, compares them with the data obtained through conversations, analysis of children's essays and other materials, and makes a pedagogical description of each student. This characteristic is stored in the student's personal file.

Prevention of Student Failure

The study of children in the learning process, careful consideration of knowledge is the most important condition for preventing academic failure.

If, on the basis of systematic accounting, the teacher establishes a lag for some reason in individual students, then he must take all measures to fill the gaps in their knowledge in the process of daily work with the class. This goal can be successfully served by the following organisational and methodological activities of the teacher:

1. Individual work with laggards in the classroom, frequent questioning of children and direct classes with them during the independent work of the class.
2. Organisation of temporary additional classes with laggards in extracurricular time in order to re-study with them poorly learned

sections, topics of the program, as well as in order to prepare them for the upcoming study of new educational material in the classroom.

3. Additional homework assignments to correct deficiencies in reading, writing, problem solving and counting.

The teacher should pay special attention to working with lagging students in the classroom. Such students need to be encouraged at each lesson, more often to force them to repeat the good answers of their comrades, to teach them to correct their mistakes on their own. The teacher should notice and emphasise each progress of the student and instil in him confidence in his abilities.

In the lesson, the teacher should use all opportunities to approach once again a weak student, help him in completing the task, explain the educational material.

Additional classes with laggards should be considered as a last resort. However, when these classes are necessary (for example, due to the student missing lessons due to illness), they should be organised and conducted systematically.

Children often lag behind in learning due to their lack of sufficiently solid initial knowledge and skills. Thus, poor reading of a student is often one of the reasons for his illiterate writing; the inability to solve simple problems and the lack of solid skills in oral accounting are an obstacle to the development of the ability to solve complex problems and to perform written calculations in a regular way. Giving home tasks to read easy texts, write, solve simple problems, repeat tables of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, exercises in oral counting, etc., the teacher will create and strengthen in lagging students the foundation without which it is impossible to successfully overcome their shortcomings and prevent lagging behind in the future.

In some cases, it is possible to organise assistance to laggards on the part of their comrades who excel in this subject (provided that this assistance is voluntary and guided by the teacher). We need to make sure that strong students don't do the work for those

they help; their help can be expressed in the explanation of certain issues, rules, in showing actions, in showing how to tell a prepared lesson, etc. Ways to help laggards should be such that they do not reduce the amount of independent work of the lagging student and ensure the meaningful fulfilment of any task.

In cases where the reason for the lag is the poor work of the student, his failure to complete homework, inattention in the classroom, etc., the surest way to eliminate the lag is to accustom this student with the active help of the teacher and the children's team to comply with a certain regime. It is necessary to ensure that the student every day at certain hours (always the same) really does homework; it is necessary to monitor compliance with this requirement and to provide assistance to the student from one of the adults. Of great importance in this case is an individual approach to students, as already mentioned above.

The correct testing of knowledge throughout the school year is one of the most important conditions that guarantee that students will come with solid knowledge and skills by the end of the year, and those who finish the IV. grade will show good readiness for work in the V. class at the exams.

Exams

In the first three grades, children are transferred to the next class at annual marks. The annual mark is derived on the basis of quarter marks, but not as an arithmetic mean, but taking into account all the annual work of the student and especially his success in the fourth quarter. Students of I-III grades who have received annual marks below 3 in the Russian language and arithmetic are left for a repeat course in the same class. Students who have received an unsatisfactory annual mark in one of these subjects, by decision of the pedagogical council, can be given educational tasks for the summer. The completion of these tasks is checked before the beginning of the new school year. Depending on the results of

these tasks, the student is either transferred to the next class or remains in the same class.

In the IV grade, exams are held, which are a form of the final annual accounting of students' knowledge. Examinations are conducted to identify factual knowledge, the strength of their assimilation by children within the framework of their training course and to determine the readiness of each student for successful learning in the fifth grade. Students who have more than three bad annual grades (marks) in the main subjects are not allowed to participate in the exams. These students stay on a repeat course in the same class. Exceptions to this are allowed only for those students whose failure was caused by illness, as well as other valid reasons (for example, the relocation of parents). Exams for these students are postponed to the fall. Students who are in poor health, if there is a conclusion of a school doctor or a medical institution, may be released from school without examinations, if their performance in the main subjects is assessed by the teacher not lower than "mediocrely" (3). Tests for students who fell ill during the exam period are postponed to the autumn. In some cases, if there is good academic performance, these students can be transferred to class V without examinations.

Exams are one of the most important and challenging moments of the academic year. Each school should conduct them in such a way that they really serve as a completely objective accounting of children's knowledge. Exams should cover as much of the work done with children during the school year. These tasks can only be successfully completed by the school if the school is well prepared for the examinations. Preparation is expressed mainly in a thorough repetition with children of the most difficult and poorly learned sections of the program, in the skilful selection of material for tests and in careful consideration of the methodology for conducting written work and oral questioning of children.

In preparation for exams, some schools, in order to achieve high student achievement rates, overburden children with all sorts of additional classes. Such preparation is a perversion of the

meaning of exams as a record that completes the work carried out throughout the school year, and leads to instability in the knowledge and skills of children. This partly explains why students who have given good literacy indicators in the exams in the fifth grade sometimes make gross mistakes, revealing ignorance of the most elementary questions of spelling.

The repetition of what has been passed in order to prepare children for exams should be approached in an organised and thoughtful manner. Starting from the first quarter, it is necessary to systematically take into account and repeat in the lessons the sections of the program poorly learned by children. By the end of the third quarter, the teacher should have a clear idea of what should be paid attention to when repeating in the fourth quarter. The amount of material for repetition must be determined absolutely accurately. On the basis of this, a plan of repetition should be drawn up. The plan should specify the calendar dates of repetition, as well as the organisational forms of repetition for individual sections, themes and issues of the program. The repetition plan can be drawn up approximately in the following form:

Subject.

Forms of repetition	Sections, topics and questions of the program!	Timing of repetition
1. Special repetition lessons	1..... 2..... 3.....	
2. Systematic repetition at the beginning or in the end of each lesson for 10-12 minutes	1..... 2.....	
3. Repetition in connection with the study of a new mother	1..... 2.....	

In addition to these forms of repetition, as an extreme measure for unsuccessful students, additional classes can also be indicated in the plan—no more than twice a week. Repetition can also be done through homework. But this form can only be successfully used in conjunction with other forms. For example, material repeated in special lessons can be given for repetition and in the form of homework.

By repeating what has been done with children, the teacher should not just reproduce and consolidate certain knowledge and skills, but systematise them. Therefore, repetition should be accompanied by generalisations and conclusions, establishing logical connections between parts of the repeated section or topic, as well as between sections and topics.

When repeating, the teacher should pay special attention to those students who have more than three bad marks in the main subjects. The teacher should take all measures to ensure that these students do not stay for a repeat course, but through intensive classes fill in the gaps in their knowledge, at least to such an extent as to qualify for exams. Do not forget about excellent students — they should also be covered by the general work. Often these students, as more reliable, are ignored by the teacher when repeated, as a result of which they sometimes perform worse in exams than during the school year.

In addition to repeating the lessons learned in the subjects included in the ec - substitutions, the teacher should also carefully repeat the lessons learned in other subjects and should not weaken their attention to further study of new material. Teachers should always remember that they must fully complete the program; even a minor flaw in the program or a weak understanding of any section of it will serve as a serious obstacle to the successful learning of children in the next grade. If, for any reason, a teacher falls behind in completing academic subjects, the head of the school is obliged to inform the Department of Public Education about this at the

beginning of the fourth quarter and take all measures to fully implement the programme.

Examinations are held in the Russian language and arithmetic, in writing and orally. Oral examinations are made by tickets.

According to the Russian language, the content of each ticket is: a sentence for analysis, two or three questions on grammar and the title of a poem or prose passage for reading by heart. Reading in exams should be checked on new material.

The specific material for analysis and reading is selected by the teacher.

The number of tickets for each subject should be no more than 30-40. In general, ticket issues should exhaust the entire programme.

There are no individual questionnaires for the exams. When repeating and preparing for exams, the teacher is guided by the state program and the textbook. The program is communicated and explained to students, indicating the material that must be repeated by students in their independent preparation for exams.

At the beginning of the preparatory period for exams, the head of the school and the teacher leading the fourth grade should hold a meeting of parents at which to explain the meaning and procedure of the exams and give parents specific instructions on how they can help their children to prepare for the exams. It is especially necessary to strive to create conditions in each family that allow children to successfully complete homework.

The teacher should promptly explain the order of the upcoming exams to the students themselves, point out to each of them the weakest points in his knowledge and outline ways to eliminate existing gaps.

Not later than ten days before the start of the exams, the school must post the exam schedule, which is drawn up by the head of the school together with the teacher. When scheduling, it is necessary to take into account what is allowed to be carried out on one day. only one exam - oral or written; one hour is allotted for

each written exam, no more than four study hours (per class) for the oral exam.

The schedule should indicate not only the days, but also the hours of the exams. As a general rule, exams should start at 9 am on call, and there should be breaks every 45 minutes for oral exams.

With a large number of students, for oral examinations, it is allowed to divide the class into two groups: one half class holds exams from 9 o'clock in the morning, the other - from 13 o'clock in the afternoon.

The teacher should ensure in advance that the classroom is adequately prepared for the exams. The classroom should contain the visual aids required for the examination process; each desk must have ink; the teacher is obliged to have spare pens, feathers, paper, etc. under his hands.

Examinations are conducted by the teacher in the presence of the head of the school and the assistant, who have the right to check the work of students, ask questions in oral examinations and put marks. On written exams in the Russian language, an exposition of the story is usually given. The teacher clearly, expressively reads the story twice, after which the children begin to write.

In arithmetic, a written exam consists of solving problems and examples that are fully recorded by the teacher on the board. First, the condition of the problem and the examples are read by the teacher. Then repeated by children. After that, children write off the condition of the problem in their sheets first, solve it, and then write it off and solve examples. It is better if the condition of the problem is written in advance on a sheet for each student by the teacher himself.

Oral exams are conducted by tickets. The student takes the ticket when calling it for a survey. If the student finds it difficult to answer the questions posed on the ticket, he is allowed to take a second ticket.

If necessary, in particular if the student has difficulty answering the questions posed in the ticket, the teacher and the assistant may ask additional questions in order to identify the actual knowledge of

the student. After the student has taken the ticket, he should be given some time to think over the answer. When answering, you should not rush and interrupt it. Only after the answer is given, you can ask additional questions if the answer was incorrect, inaccurate or incomplete. The teacher's questions in the examinations must meet the general requirements that are imposed on them, i.e. be accessible to children in form, specific and clear in content. When children respond, you should not make remarks in a harsh form, for example: "You do not know this", "Bad", "Incorrectly", "Confused", etc. Some students in exams are worried, and such remarks lead to undesirable results: the student is lost and stops responding even what he knows. On the contrary, when questioning, the teacher should take a tone that would encourage students and instill in them confidence in their own strength.

Written and oral examinations should be organised in such a way that they exclude the possibility of cheating and prompting. A student who has completed a written work must hand it over to the teacher and leave the classroom. On oral examinations, the student, after answering, can stay in the class or leave the class during a break.

At the end of each exam, the teacher, together with the assistant, checks the written works, puts marks, sums up the results of oral answers. It is the responsibility of the head of the school to monitor the correctness of the assessment of students' knowledge; he reviews the written works and, in the event of an incorrect approach to the assessment of students' knowledge, is obliged to point out to the teacher and assistant the need to correct them. It goes without saying that such instructions must be given responsibly and with full knowledge, otherwise they can only disorganise the work of the teacher. In case of disagreement of the assistant with the teacher's assessment, the head of the school is obliged to carefully study the controversial issue and resolve it.

At the end of an examination in a subject (written or oral), the head of the school, or with his permission the teacher, may announce to the students the results of the examinations.

The teacher who conducted the exams carefully fills in and passes to the head of the school on the day of the exams a protocol with grades (marks) of each student's knowledge. The protocol shall be drawn up in the following form:

I approve:
 Head of School
 " " 19

Protocol

exam by..... in IV class
 School district areas
 Surname, name, patronymic of the teacher
 Surname, name, patronymic of the assistant

No p/n	Name and surname of the student	Rating (mark)	Note

Teacher
 Assistant
 " "19....

At the end of all exams, the head of the school must hold a pedagogical meeting at which the results of the exams are heard, the general annual grades in subjects are approved and it is finalised which of the students graduates from grade IV, who is left for a repeat course and who needs to take an additional exam in the fall. Students who receive more than three overall 'poor' and 'very poor' annual grades are retained for a repeat course in the same grade and are not allowed to take the fall exams.

At the same meeting, concrete measures should be outlined for the preparation of each student who received repeated exams for the fall. Autumn screening exams are held from 20 to 27 August inclusive. Students who receive a final overall final grade (mark)

after the autumn exams 'bad' (2), at least in one of the main subjects, are left for a repeat course in the same class.

All materials for exams (protocols, written work, tickets, etc.) are transferred by the teacher to the head of the school, who is obliged to ensure their storage at the school.

ABOUT WORKING IN TWO-PART AND ONE-PART SCHOOLS

In a two-complete school, as you know, the teacher leads two classes at the same time, in a one-complete school - three or even four. Although the number of students in these schools is small (there are usually no more than thirty students per teacher), nevertheless, the simultaneous work with two, three or even four classes presents for a teacher, especially a beginner, undoubtedly, great difficulties.

The main pedagogical task that is set for a teacher working with several classes is that he must fully comply with the curriculum established for the school and programs in the same way as a teacher working with one class. Some people think that this task is impossible. You can't, they say, in the conditions of working with two classes, go through the entire program, having for direct work with children, in fact, half of the teaching time that a teacher working with one class has.

However, such statements are refuted by the practice of two-complete and one-complete schools. In the past, zemstvo elementary schools were almost exclusively two- and one-class schools, and yet many of them, as you know, did a pretty good job. In our time, we know quite a few two- and one-class schools that, according to the results of their work, not only stand at the level of good four-class schools, but often surpass them qualitatively.

The success of educational work with several classes depends mainly on the ability of the teacher to productively use that part of the teaching time that is allocated for independent work of students. It can be said that the independent work of students in the conditions of classes with several classes is the main didactic task, from which one should proceed in solving all organisational and methodological issues of educational work.

From this point of view, one should approach both the issue of class distribution, and the planning of classes and the organisation and conduct of lessons.

Class Distribution

Indeed, what is the best way to distribute classes among teachers so that it is easier to work?

In the practice of two-complete schools, one can find different types of distribution of classes between teachers: I and II; III and IV; I and III; II and IV; II and III. However, experience shows that the most appropriate and convenient is the distribution in which one teacher works with grades I and III, and the other with grades II and IV. The advantage of such a distribution is obvious. Senior students usually already have some skills: ki independent work, and therefore the organisation and conduct of this work in the senior class does not present any particular difficulties for the teacher. This gives the teacher the opportunity to devote more attention and time to preparing independent work in the younger grade. In addition, with well-organised educational work, older children are always an example for the younger ones, and therefore, when the older class is connected to the younger one, the issues of order and discipline in the lesson are resolved much more easily than when the teacher has two younger classes. This is also very important for successful independent work. Finally, with such a distribution of classes, the teacher more easily and quickly gains experience in working with two classes, since in this case he has to repeat work in the same combination of classes a year later.

Organisation of Classes

Proper organisation of classes during the day is also very important for the success of working with two classes. Some

teachers, in order to avoid working with two classes at the same time, hold classes in two shifts. This should be strongly objected to.

The quality of a teacher's work with an eight-hour workload will inevitably decrease by the end of the school day, and often this organisation of classes leads to a reduction in the number of weekly hours. Two-shift classes in rural areas also create a number of inconveniences for children, who sometimes have to go to school 2-3 kilometres away.

However, you should not abandon the idea of organising classes with two classes in such a way that part of the school time can be used to work with one class. This is especially necessary at the beginning of the school year, when children who have just entered school do not yet have the skills to work independently.

The difficulty of organising independent work in the classroom in the first grade has increased especially in connection with the admission of seven-year-olds to school. Therefore, it is advisable that first-grade classes, at least during the first quarter, start after the big break. This gives the teacher the opportunity to devote the first two lessons entirely to classes with the G class, and the last lessons-only with the W class. At the same time, the first lesson in each class should be devoted to arithmetic, and the second and third-to Russian. With such a schedule, the teacher can prepare and start independent work with the children at the end of the second lesson, which they will then continue in the third lesson. This will undoubtedly make it easier for the teacher to work with two classes.

By the end of the school year, the same class allocation system should be applied to the teacher who leads the teaching staff. [Y classes, in order to better prepare students of the GU class for tests, and with students of the P class to repeat the most difficult sections of the program in Russian and arithmetic.

Although this class allocation system reduces the number of lessons with two classes, the teacher's workload increases by two hours every day. Therefore, it is unlikely that this system should be used throughout the school year. But in a single-class school, where

the teacher's daily workload is set at 6 hours, it is advisable to spend the first two lessons with only one class during the entire school year, then the next two lessons with three classes, and finally the last two lessons with two classes.

At the same time, at the beginning of the school year, the first hours should be set aside for classes with grade I and keep this distribution of school time throughout the first half of the year, until children learn to read and write; in the third quarter, these first two hours should be set aside for classes with grade II, and in the fourth quarter—with grade III.

This distribution of study time in classes with three classes allows teachers in each class to strengthen their direct work with children and thereby fill in the gaps in knowledge that children have, focus on the most difficult sections of the program, and better prepare children for independent work.

The Schedule of Lessons

For the success of classes with two classes, it does not matter how the subjects are connected in the schedule. Experience shows that it is more difficult to teach two classes in two different subjects and easier in one subject, i.e. when the Russian language is combined in the schedule with the Russian language, arithmetic with arithmetic. This is quite understandable: with such a combination of subjects, the teacher will not have to switch from one area of knowledge to another in the lesson, his attention will be more focused, and therefore the work will be more intense.

The subjects in the schedule must be paired so that the teacher has the opportunity at each lesson and in each class to carry out independent work of children. It should be borne in mind that not all subjects equally represent the possibility of organising independent work. In teaching the Russian language and arithmetic, especially in high school, independent work can be widely used, since the development of reading skills, literate writing, counting and problem solving requires a large number of exercises, the

effectiveness of which is largely determined by the degree of independence of students in their implementation. . Another thing is such subjects as history, geography and natural science. Although teaching these subjects does not exclude independent work of students in the classroom, but, on the contrary, suggests it, especially in the process of consolidating knowledge from a textbook, the nature of these subjects is such that studying them with children of primary school age requires the teacher to tell more stories and conversations, demonstrations of visual aids, etc., i.e. direct lessons with children. The possibility of such teaching in the conditions of classes with several classes is not difficult to ensure if these subjects are put in the schedule in combination with calligraphy, drawing, arithmetic, writing (spelling), allowing the teacher to organise independent work in the lower grade.

When scheduling lessons, it is very important to determine the place of physical training and singing lessons.

Very often, in a multi-class setting, these subjects are ignored by the teacher. This, of course, cannot be allowed: teaching them is obligatory in elementary school, regardless of whether the teacher works with one or more classes.

Lessons of physical education and singing when a teacher works with several classes are very often put in the schedule in pairs with other subjects.

Often in the schedule, when a teacher works with two classes, half-hour paired connections of objects are used: for example, the first 25 minutes of the fourth lesson, class II. is engaged in handwriting or drawing on its own; at this time, the fourth grade is engaged in physical education with the teacher. The last 20 minutes of this lesson, the II. class is engaged in physical education with the teacher, and in the IV. class at this time, independent reading is carried out, prepared by the teacher in the previous lesson of the Russian language, or drawing. The same thing is repeated on one of the following days, but always with such a distribution of time that for each of the named subjects in total 45 minutes are obtained.

The advantage of such a schedule is that during singing or physical education classes in one of the classes, the need to organise independent work in another during the whole lesson is eliminated. Working according to such a schedule, it is necessary to carry out preparatory work on these subjects at the end of the third lesson before the independent lesson of children in handwriting or drawing.

Despite some advantage of such a schedule, it still does not eliminate the above disadvantages of pairing singing and physical education with other subjects. Therefore, more expedient, as experience shows, is such a distribution of subjects during the day, in which, without violating the total number of weekly hours, singing and physical education are taken out of the four lessons.

A third option is also possible, in which physical education lessons are planned during the week according to the same principle as in the first schedule, that is, they are combined in pairs with such subjects as calligraphy and drawing; singing in both classes is held for 20 and 25 minutes after the fourth lesson. Such a construction of the schedule makes it possible for the teacher in each class to allocate one lesson entirely for direct work with children.

With regard to the Russian language and arithmetic, when drawing up the schedule, the following requirements must be met: arithmetic and grammar should not be placed beyond the third lesson; reading, speech development and calligraphy can be carried out in the third and fourth lessons. At the same time, the lessons of reading and speech development (exposition and essay) should not be the same in different classes. Simultaneous reading in several classes will distract the attention of children and, in addition, it will be difficult for the teacher in this case to devote sufficient attention to reading aloud in each class. In the same way, it is impossible to conduct classes on the development of speech in several classes at the same time, since in these lessons, especially in the lower grades, the possibility of independent work of children is limited.

It is advisable once or twice a week to devote the last lessons in the upper grades to explanatory reading, and the first lessons the

next day to presentation or composition. This will give the teacher an opportunity in the classroom. Reading to prepare children for independent written exercises for the development of speech.

It is advisable to indicate in the schedule how much time, approximately, the teacher should use for direct work with children and for their independent studies in each class. In the practice of schools where one teacher works with several classes, such instructions are not uncommon. They are given with the aim of more or less correct distribution of the direct work of the teacher between classes during the day and week. However, they should not have any mandatory and permanent significance, since when distributing lesson time for classes with several classes, the teacher must first of all proceed from the content of the educational material.

Time allocation instructions are given in the schedule in a cumulative way and should not be understood as a lesson plan. For example, if in any class, according to the schedule, the teacher must devote 95 minutes to his direct work with children and 20 minutes to independent studies of children, then this should not be understood as that the teacher first works with children for 25 minutes, and then they work independently for 20 minutes. . The direct work of the teacher with the children and their independent studies alternate in the lesson, depending on its content. In this case, it may be that at first the teacher will give the children independent work for 10 minutes, then conduct classes with them for 15 minutes and again give independent work for 10 minutes, and at the end of the lesson he will take 5 minutes to check this work. Thus, the teacher will spend 25 minutes on direct work with children in this lesson, and 20 minutes on independent studies of children, that is, as much as indicated in the schedule.

In cases where, during simultaneous lessons with several classes, children must work independently for almost the entire lesson, sufficient time should be allotted in the previous and subsequent lessons in this subject for the teacher to work directly with this class.

So, for example, if out of two daily Russian language lessons in the first grade, the second lesson takes place mainly in the independent studies of children, then in the first lesson most of the time is devoted to the direct work of the teacher with the class. It is assumed that the independent work of children in the second lesson will be prepared by the teacher in the first lesson. In the alphabetical period of study, this will be mainly independent reading from the primer after the work done by the teacher in the first lesson with the cut alphabet or writing a new letter and words with a new letter after the preliminary exercise of the children under the guidance of the teacher in the first lesson. The small amount of time that is allocated in the second lesson for direct work with the class is used by the teacher to give the children independent work and selectively check it at the end of the lesson.

Such a system of distributing time for the direct work of the teacher and for independent studies of children should be followed when drawing up the schedule for all subjects and all classes with which the teacher conducts classes at the same time.

When a teacher works with three or four classes, the timetable is drawn up based on the teacher's daily classroom hours. This makes it possible to distribute the lessons during the day in such a way that only part of them takes place in conditions of simultaneous work. teachers with three or four classes, the rest of the lessons are held either with two or with one class.

Thanks to this, during the week the teacher conducts only twelve lessons with three or four classes. The number of these lessons can be reduced to ten if the physical education and singing classes are held during the longer breaks (see pp. 160 and 161).

In addition, the teacher has the opportunity in individual classes to set aside one or two lessons a week for direct work with children. The disadvantage of such a schedule is the reduction in the duration of the break for the class with which the teacher conducts singing and physical education classes, and, at the same time, an increase in the break for those students who are free at this time. However,

this shortcoming of the schedule does not have any significant significance for the work of the teacher and students.

A five-minute break before the start of singing or physical education classes and a ten or fifteen minute rest after these classes are quite sufficient for children, especially since 20- or 25-minute singing and physical education classes are held or on those days when students have only three lessons, or when one of the four lessons is an easier lesson, such as calligraphy. Five-minute breaks before and after physical education classes in grade II are also quite sufficient for children, since these classes are held before the last lesson and, in addition, games, which are a kind of recreation for children, occupy a significant place in their main part.

As for the increase in the duration of the break to 40 minutes, as a result of the teacher's lessons with one of the classes in singing or physical education, then with the skilful conduct of work, the teacher can very effectively use the surplus of this time. It can involve children in joint singing of previously learned songs, physical education games, reading aloud books from the school library, board games of educational and educational value, etc.

The most difficult part of the school day for a teacher who works simultaneously with several classes is the third and fourth lessons, when he conducts classes simultaneously with four or three classes. Some of these lessons are partly facilitated by the fact that they are given in the timetable in such a combination of subjects, when one of the subjects is calligraphy or drawing. This gives the teacher the opportunity to organise independent work of students in one of the classes during most of the lesson and focus on direct work in those classes where the Russian language and arithmetic are given according to the schedule.

The beginning of the school day in grades II and IV takes place in the conditions of simultaneous work of the teacher with grades four and three. Therefore, very limited time is allotted for direct work with students in these classes in the first lessons. This is the shortcoming of the schedule. However, it can be easily corrected if students' independent work is properly organised in these lessons.

The schedule assumes that the first lessons in grades II and IV should be closely related in content to the direct work carried out by the teacher the day before. So, for example, after explaining a spelling rule and conducting a series of exercises to consolidate it, the next day the teacher can give the children this or that independent work on the application of this rule: copy the text, underlining the required spellings in it, find and write out words from the text to this rule, parse them, make sentences with them, enter these words into the text, changing their form, etc. After reading the story the day before and having a conversation with the children on its content, the teacher can give the class an independent reading of this story in the next lesson with the completion of any task.

This kind of preliminary preparation for independent work should also take place in other subjects.

Lesson Planning and Conduct

When planning a lesson with several classes, it is especially important to correctly determine the place and nature of the independent work of children. The fundamental disadvantage of the lessons of many teachers of two-set and one-set schools is the randomness and far-fetchedness of the tasks that they give for independent studies of students. Often, the teacher gives these tasks to the class not in order to solve any problems of the lesson, but only in order to occupy the children with something while he will work with another class. Hence the unacceptable waste of time in the classroom, which inevitably entails a flaw, a lag in the passage of the programme and a low level of student achievement.

Another, no less important drawback, which also has to be encountered in the practice of two-set and one-set schools, is the lack of sufficient preparation of children for independent work: the teacher often gives children independent work, for which students do not have the necessary knowledge and skills and do not own the form of the work offered to them.

Independent work in the classroom can be productive, provided that it is previously well thought out by the teacher and thoroughly prepared by him. It is unacceptable that the independent work of students in the classroom was accidental or far-fetched. It should strictly correspond to the purpose and content of the lesson and be closely related to the direct work of the teacher.

The teacher sometimes incorrectly determines the place of independent work in the classroom. There are frequent cases when teachers give children tasks for independent study of new material from a textbook without a preliminary explanation of this material. Such "independent" work, in fact, repeats the harmful practice in schools, when students, having neither the appropriate knowledge nor skills, worked on the instructions of the teacher on new material, being left to themselves. This method of "independent" work is condemned and cannot have any application in the classroom. Independent work of students when working as a teacher with several classes should be carried out under the guidance of a teacher and based on the knowledge and skills of children. Therefore, its place in the lesson is mainly where the repetition or consolidation of the passed is carried out. It should complement the direct work of the teacher, completing it when what the teacher explained to the children is fixed, and preceding it, when the assimilation of new material requires a repetition of what has been passed.

When working with several classes, it is necessary that the individual lessons are closely related to each other, not only in content, but also in organisational terms. The establishment of such a connection is especially important in cases where the independent work of students is prepared by the teacher in advance, sometimes two or three days before it is carried out.

This obliges the teacher to plan his work with children not only for the next day, but for several days ahead. Such a plan is first drawn up in general terms. In it, the teacher outlines only the content of individual lessons.

Month, date, day	Scheduled lesson	Contents of the work by class	Course of the lesson

Initially, three columns are filled in. The column in which the course of the lesson is recorded is not filled in immediately, but gradually, in preparation for each next day of work.

In order to outline the content of individual lessons for several days ahead, the teacher needs to familiarise himself in detail with the educational material. At the same time, the task of the teacher is not only to correctly distribute the material in the lessons, but also to establish a close connection between them. In the teacher's work plan, lessons should be presented in a certain system, the parts of which are internally interconnected. Thanks to this, randomness and far-fetchedness in the choice of the content and forms of individual classes with children and especially the independent work of students are eliminated.

In the case when a teacher teaches a lesson in both classes on the same subject, for example, in grammar, in arithmetic, then, although he deals with different material in each class, he still operates with similar ideas and concepts and this gives him the opportunity to sometimes unite younger and older children for joint work. Here's an example: A teacher exercises Grade IV students in grammatical analysis. He also involves the second grade in this work. In the sentences written on the board for analysis, students of the II class indicate the words denoting the name of objects, action, quality, determine which question this or that word answers, find unstressed vowels, dubious consonants, etc. in words on the teacher's assignment, and students of the IV class analyse the same words, indicating their grammatical forms, their morphological composition, changing them on the instructions of the teacher, Or another example: in a grammar lesson, the teacher intends to give the students of the younger grade an independent work - to write off the text from the board and put accents in the emphasised

words. Previously, children perform these tasks under the guidance of a teacher orally. They read sentences and parse the underlined words, indicating how many syllables there are in each word and on which syllable the stress falls. To this analysis, the teacher also involves high school students, complicating the task for them. It suggests, for example, to specify stressed and unstressed vowels in other words of sentences, to come up with single-root words to the words emphasised in the text and make sentences with them, etc.

Similarly, it is possible to conduct joint work of classes in an arithmetic lesson, practicing children in oral counting.

The joint work of both classes at the beginning of the lesson is useful in that it disciplines children, creates a working mood for them from the very beginning of the lesson, excites attention and interest in the subject of classes. Therefore, it is very important that this work is not detached from the rest of the lesson, but is used by the teacher as a starting point for the further conduct of the lesson.

However, the joint work of the two classes should be considered as a separate technique that can be used only if it is appropriate, based on the objectives of the lesson and the nature of the educational material. In most cases, a teacher working with several classes should begin the lesson with a task for each class to work independently. The nature of these assignments will vary depending on the content and type of lessons.

There are three main types of lessons with two classes: a) a lesson in which new material is learned in both classes; b) a lesson in which new material is studied in one class, and in the other there is consolidation, repetition of what has been passed or accounting; c) a lesson in which in both classes the subject of the lesson is the repetition of the lesson or accounting.

The lesson, which teaches new material in both classes, is planned as follows:

Junior Class	Senior Class
1. Independent work. Preparation for work with the teacher—5 min.	1. Work with the teacher. Explanation of the task of preparing for the study of a new material—5 minutes.
2. Work with the teacher. Preparation of students for the perception of new material; explanation of new material; the task for independent work in the classroom and at home and partial performance of work under the supervision of a teacher—15-20 minutes.	2. Independent work. Written performance of the task related to the 'study of new material; Reading in the classroom in order to repeat what has been passed—15-20 minutes.
3. Independent work. Continuation of independent work on fixing the material explained by the teacher—20-15 minutes.	3. Work with the teacher. Verification of independent work—students; explanation of new material, assignment for independent work in the classroom and at home; partial performance of this work under the supervision of the teacher—20-15 minutes.
4. Work with the teacher. View students' independent work; second homework—5 min.	4. Independent work. Continuation of the task of interpreting the explained material— 5 min.

The lesson begins, as can be seen from the above diagram, with the independent work of children in the lower grade and the direct work of the teacher in the older grade. This is typical of a lesson in which both classes are learning 'new material. In the senior class, it is easier for the teacher to give children independent work at the beginning of the lesson than in the younger one. Children of the senior class have more knowledge, they learn the task faster than children of the younger class, they have more skill and skills to complete the tasks of the teacher on their own. Thanks to this, the teacher can relatively easily give an assignment in the senior class and organise the children for independent work and, thus, free up

time for explaining new material in the junior class. But the possibility of such a structure of the lesson is not excluded, in which the teacher first gives the task for independent work to the younger class. This is possible and expedient if the independent work that the teacher intends to give the children to prepare for the study of new material is closely related to the homework done by the students and is fully based on the educational material they have just studied.

So, for example, if a teacher intends to explain to children the subtraction within 20 with the transition through a dozen ($15 - 7$), then, obviously, he must first repeat with them the decomposition of the number into its component parts ($7 = 5 + 2$), subtraction from 10 ($10 - 2$) and subtracting from two-digit, 143 when the remainder is 10 ($15 - 5 = 10$). All this was the subject of study and exercises of the children in the previous lessons. Similar examples were undoubtedly included in the children's homework, and therefore it is not difficult for the teacher to organise an independent repetition of this educational material as the basis for explaining a new case of subtraction.

Thus, the teacher begins the lesson with his direct work with the class in which it is easier and faster to give children independent work. The latter may include not only preparation for the study of new material, but also an independent check of homework. Depending on the class in which the teacher begins his direct work with children, the next course of the lesson is determined. If the teacher at the beginning of the lesson gives a task for independent work to the younger class, then the explanation of the new material in this class will be carried out in the second half of the lesson, and in the senior class—in the first half of the lesson. In accordance with this, the independent work of children is also distributed. Determining the course of the lesson, the teacher should not forget that the place of his direct work with children in the lesson depends mainly on the nature of the educational material that he must explain to the children. If this material is difficult to master and, as a result, after the explanation, it will be necessary to consolidate it

initially in the same lesson, then, obviously, its explanation should be carried out in the first half of the lesson.

While the task is being explained in one class, in the other, the children are independently preparing to work with the teacher; look at their homework, write off the text indicated by the teacher from the board; get acquainted with new material from the book, etc.

The explanation of new material both in junior and senior grades ends with an assignment for independent work. Children begin to do independent work at first under the direct supervision of the teacher. To do this, a few minutes are allocated from the total budget of time allotted for explaining new material. Then the children work completely independently. At the same time, part of the work, within the remaining time, they perform in the classroom, and part at home. In the class where the teacher explained the new material in the second half of the lesson, the children do only a small part of their independent work—they start it in the classroom and finish it at home.

When planning a lesson in which new material is studied in one class, and in the other, consolidation or repetition of what has been passed or taking into account the knowledge of students, the progress of work is determined depending on which class is supposed to study new material. So, for example, if the teacher will explain the new material in the senior class, then the lesson can be built approximately according to the following plan:

Junior class	Senior class
1. Work with the teacher. Checking homework; task for independent work on fixing the past—10 minutes.	1. Independent work. Checking homework; performance of various kinds of tasks in connection with preparation for work with a teacher—10 min.
2. Independent work. Performing various kinds of exercises (cheating with a task, solving problems and examples, etc.)—20-25 minutes.	2. Work with the teacher. Checking the independent work of students; explanation of new material; task for independent work in the classroom and at home—20-25

<p>3. Work with the teacher. Checking the independent work of students; exercise or conversation in connection with the consolidation of what has been covered; homework—15-10 minutes.</p>	<p>minutes.</p> <p>3. Independent work. Performing various tasks related to fixing the material explained by the teacher—15-10 minutes.</p>
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The lesson begins with the work of the teacher with the children of the junior class and the independent work of the students of the senior class. Such a beginning of the lesson, in which new material is studied in one class, and in the other there is consolidation, repetition of what has been passed or taking into account the knowledge of children, is common. Only if the class in which the consolidation or repetition of what has been passed already has an assignment for independent work received in the previous lesson, or if the children continue in this lesson the work partially completed by them at home, then the teacher can start the lesson with direct work in another class. In accordance with this, the distribution in the lesson will also change. independent work in the classroom. However, in most cases, the teacher must adhere to the rule—to begin such lessons with a task for independent work to the class in which it is planned to consolidate or repeat what has been passed or a written test of students' knowledge. This will give the teacher the opportunity to free up a significant part of the lesson time for explaining new material to another class. But in this case, it must be borne in mind that in the class in which there was a consolidation or repetition of what has been passed, it is necessary to provide time within 10-15 minutes after the children's independent work for direct work with the teacher.

Only under this condition can the consolidation or repetition of the material covered be successful. The explanation of the new material and the subsequent independent work of the children in this lesson is planned in the same way as in the lesson of studying new material in both classes.

The lesson, in which in both classes the content of the work is a repetition of the material covered, does not present any special difficulties for construction. In such lessons, the teacher has more opportunities for independent work of children than in the lessons of the two previous types. An approximate lesson plan, in which in both classes work is carried out on educational material already known to children, can be presented in the following form:

Junior class	Senior class
<p>1. Independent work. Consolidation, repetition of the past, continuation of homework; preparation for classes with a teacher (copying texts, examples, reading from a textbook, etc.)—10 min.</p>	<p>1. Work with the teacher. Explanation of the task for self-reinforcement or repetition of what has been passed; control task to test children's knowledge—10 min.</p>
<p>2. Work with the teacher. Checking the independent work of children; exercises or conversation in connection with consolidation or repetition of the past; task for independent work in the classroom and at home—25 min.</p>	<p>2. Independent work. Completion of the teacher's task (exercises, reading from a book, control work, etc.) in connection with consolidating or repeating what has been passed or tested by children's knowledge—25 min.</p>
<p>3. Independent work, Partial performance of the task of the teacher to consolidate and repeat what has been passed (written exercise, reading from the book)—10 min.</p>	<p>3. Work with the teacher. Checking the independent work of children; indirect repetition with the children of the past—10 min.</p>

In this lesson, the teacher begins direct work with children in the class where it is easier to give independent work or where it is necessary to precede the task for independent work with oral exercises or a conversation with children. If in one of the classes in this lesson it is supposed to conduct a test, then the teacher should start working with this class. Having received a test task from the teacher, the children can work independently throughout the lesson.

If consolidation or repetition of what has been learned is planned in both classes, then this is carried out both in the direct work of the teacher with one and the other class and in the independent studies of children.

The direct work of the teacher with the children to consolidate or repeat what has been learned in such lessons is absolutely mandatory. In these cases, one cannot limit oneself only to the independent work of children, as it is. often happens in practice.

In the above diagram of the lesson, the direct work of the teacher in the junior class is scheduled after the assignment to the senior class, which the teacher gives at the beginning of the lesson. In the senior grade, the direct work of the teacher with the children to consolidate or repeat what has been learned is provided at the beginning of the lesson in connection with the explanation of the task for independent work and after the independent work of the children in connection with its verification.

In this type of lesson, the teacher can sometimes plan independent work for children at the same time in both classes. This takes place most often in the lessons of arithmetic and spelling, when the direct work of the teacher to consolidate and repeat what has been passed with the children is expressed in the form of exercises, some types of which the children perform on their own.

When planning a lesson with three and four classes, the distribution of time in the lessons is determined mainly by the degree of complexity of the content of the work for individual classes. It is clear that in the class where the material of the lesson is more difficult, there should be more time for the direct work of the teacher with the children. The study of new material, as a rule, requires the teacher to work more directly with children than to consolidate or repeat what has been learned. In those classes where independent work on the basis of previously prepared material is possible during the last part of the lesson, the direct work of the teacher takes no more than 5-10 minutes. This is quite enough to look at the children's work, give the necessary instructions, or change the nature of the task.

The main attention of the teacher should be paid to classes with children in the class where new material is being studied. At the beginning of the lesson, it is advisable to give this class a small task for independent work, for example: check the homework written on the text given on the board, check the correctness of the solution of tasks and examples given at home by the ready-made solution given by the teacher, consider the subject of study or its image, carried out at the direction of the teacher of observation, recall what has been covered and prepare answers to the teacher's questions, etc.

Each of these tasks should not take more than 5 minutes to complete. At this time, the teacher gives the rest of the classes a pre-prepared independent work and then proceeds to explain the new material.

The general scheme of a lesson plan with several classes can be represented as follows:

1. A small task for independent work to the class with which the teacher plans to conduct direct lessons in the first place.

2. Assignment to each of the other classes to continue the exercises carried out in the previous lesson, or to perform previously prepared independent work.

3. Checking independent work in the class where the teacher started the lesson. Explanation of a new material in this class or an exercise by students under the direct guidance of a teacher. In both cases, the direct work of the teacher ends with the task for students to work independently in the classroom and at home.

4. Transition to the class in which the independent work of students was calculated for the same period as the direct work of the teacher in the previous class. The teacher's activities in this class consist in a quick review of independent work and instructions for students to continue it or in explaining a new material that requires a small amount of time (10-15 minutes), followed by a task for independent work (in class and at home), or in the exercises of students with their further transition to independent work.

5. Sequential transition to each of the remaining classes, in which the direct work of the teacher, in accordance with the remaining time, is

expressed: by time limitation (10-15 minutes)—in a cursory review of the independent work of students in both classes and assignments and at home; sufficient time (20-25 min.)—in reviewing independent work and instructions for students to continue it in one of the classes, and in explaining new material or in exercises until the end of the lesson—in another.

This scheme may vary depending on the content of the work in each class and the goals set by the teacher. But under all conditions, it must meet the basic requirement: a lesson with three or four classes should be planned so that the teacher's direct work with children is mainly reduced to classes with one or two classes, in the rest of the classes, independent work of children should be provided throughout the school hour, requiring only general supervision of the teacher.

The most difficult and responsible lessons in the conditions of a teacher working with several classes are those in which new material is studied in one or two classes. The difficulty of conducting such lessons lies in the fact that each lesson in the classroom, where new material is being studied, must take place with more or less direct participation of the teacher. This requires the teacher to be able to conduct the lesson according to the plan, to condense his work as much as possible and at the same time carry it out at each stage with such results that it ensures the readiness of the transition of children to the next stage. For example, preparation for the perception of new material should be carried out in such a way that it really contributes to the assimilation of this material; the explanation of the new material should sufficiently orient each student in further independent studies.

Repetition of what has been passed in order to prepare children for the perception of new material can be carried out by independent work of children, but subject to subsequent direct repetition of this material with the teacher. At the same time, it should be borne in mind that tasks for independent work of children in this case should be very simple, quite accessible to perform both

in content and in form. For self-repetition of what has been passed before studying new material, you can give only what has been well learned by children and that will not require a lot of time from the teacher to explain the task. At the same time, it is necessary to choose such types of independent work, the technique of which the children have mastered well.

The easiest form of independent work in this case can be attributed to quiet reading with the preparation of answers to questions written by the teacher on the blackboard; copying the text or writing out. from the text of certain words or sentences with various kinds of changes in the forms of words, underscores, etc.; written solution of examples and problems.

In the conditions of a teacher's work with several classes, it is advisable to prepare children for lessons in which new material is being studied in advance, at previous lessons on this subject. It is especially necessary to do this in cases where it is necessary to repeat a significant volume or difficult content of educational material. But if independent work on the content and technique of execution is well known to children, for example, solving numerical examples of a certain type, and the task for this work does not require detailed explanations from the teacher, then such work can be given right in the lesson before explaining new material, without linking it with homework.

The same should be said about self-repetition according to the textbook. This work can also be given at the lesson itself without its preliminary preparation, if the children know the order of its execution well.

Sometimes new material does not require a preliminary repetition of any question from the past, for example, reading a new article that is not related in content to the previous material, starting a new topic or section of the program, etc. In such cases, the lesson should begin with the teacher's direct work. But sometimes it is advisable to introduce children to its content through independent work of children before studying new material. For example, before reading a story with children, the

teacher can give them a preliminary reading of it on their own (if the story is quite accessible to them).

As an independent work before studying new material, there can be direct observation by children of the object of study or preliminary acquaintance with it by its image. Consideration of illustrations to the lesson material, analysis of paintings intended for the development of written speech, can be the subject of independent work of children. Such works develop children's observation skills, clarify their ideas, enliven the direct experience of children and arouse their interest in classes and, thanks to this, ensure the steady attention of children in their subsequent direct work with the teacher.

Thus, if new material is being studied in both classes in the lesson, then the teacher has a number of opportunities to ensure that the first stage of the lesson — preparing children for the perception of new material — is carried out in one of the classes by self-study. These classes, as already mentioned above, necessarily end with the direct work of the teacher. Only under this condition will independent work be useful in the future, when studying new material.

When conducting a lesson with two or more classes, the teacher is guided by the same general didactic principles as when working with one class. But when explaining new material in conditions of working with several classes, one more very important circumstance must be taken into account. The explanation of the new material should be followed by independent work of children. This obliges the teacher to conduct the explanation in such a way that it prepares children for independent work. Therefore, by activating the perception of children in every possible way, the teacher, in the process of moving them from ignorance to knowledge, strives to effectively master their educational material. So, for example, explaining to children the multiplication of a three-digit number by a two-digit number, the teacher in the first example consistently tells and shows how to multiply. In the second example, he already attracts the children themselves to the explanation,

posing questions to them: where should multiplication begin? what should I do then? where should I sign the second multiplication result? why? etc. Without limiting the explanation of the action being studied to two examples, the teacher takes another example, first repeats the order of action with the children, and then suggests solving this example in notebooks. Then the same example is solved by one of the students on the blackboard, the children consistently check the correctness of the solution of the example in their notebooks. If it turns out that three examples are not enough for children to fully assimilate this action, then you should take another example and solve it also with the active participation of children.

It is also necessary to carry out an explanation of the new material on grammar and spelling. If, following the teacher's explanation, the children will independently learn new material from the textbook, which most often takes place in the lessons of history, geography and natural science, then reading the text of the textbook should be an absolutely obligatory part of the explanation. This can be done along with the explanation of new material, if the latter is divided into logically complete parts. Then, after explaining each part, the teacher reads to the children the corresponding place from the textbook. But most often the reading of the textbook is carried out after explaining all the material.

The explanation of new material in the conditions of work with several classes must be brought to such a degree of conscious assimilation of it that the children could completely independently reproduce what the teacher explained.

The first exercises to consolidate what has been learned, if possible, should be carried out under the direct guidance and supervision of the teacher.

At the same time, it is necessary to organise the work so that it covers the entire class, so that each student really exercises. When studying with two classes, such an organisation of work has of great importance for subsequent independent exercises of children. Through direct work with the teacher, children not only learn the essence of the task well, but also acquire some skills in the proper

organisation of independent work. The latter is especially important, since the independent work of children only in that case will be productive if they have good command of the form. this work.

If the children's written exercises are preceded by an oral assignment, then in these cases, independent work can be divided into two parts. For example, self-compilation of written answers to questions based on what they have read is carried out as follows: children read the questions written on the board and independently think over the answers; the teacher asks the children, corrects and supplements their answers, after which the children independently compose written answers and check what they have written using the book.

Independent work must be prepared in such a way that it is enough not only for an average, but also for a good student, that is, it must be given "with a margin", as experienced teachers say. However, additional assignments should not be given immediately, but only after the completion of the obligatory work for the entire class. Otherwise, children, trying to do more, will rush and do the work carelessly.

In the lesson, the teacher conducts his direct work with one, then with another class. Studying with one class, the teacher, however, does not disregard the other class. He observes the independent work of children and, in necessary cases, comes to their aid. To do this, he interrupts his direct work for a few minutes, giving the class a small task, and moves on to the class working independently. The teacher walks around the children, briefly looks through their work, makes comments and instructions to individual students or asks questions and, based on the answers and viewing of their work, makes instructions to the whole class.

Observing the independent work of the class, the teacher should first of all monitor the poorly performing students and check their work more often. You can apply various methods to prevent errors during the execution of a task. For example, in arithmetic or spelling, a teacher can write on slips of paper and give poor

performers children need spelling to complete the task, samples of correctly solved examples or tasks similar to those given in the task, etc.

In the context of working with two classes, children's homework becomes especially important. Properly delivered homework helps to consolidate the knowledge of students and thereby facilitates the organisation of independent work in the classroom. Homework in a multi-class teacher setting should generally be an integral part of the children's independent work in the classroom. Under this condition, it will always be productive.

Serious attention should be paid to checking the results of independent work, both in class and at home. Let the children do the most insignificant work, for example, write off the blackboard in a notebook, the teacher still needs to see how they did it, whether they followed the instructions that they were given before work.

In the practice of the best teachers, it is not uncommon to find children independently checking their work according to the text or solution given on the blackboard, as well as by comparing it with the textbook. It's very useful type of work, especially in spelling exercises and in solving difficult examples and problems. However, the children's self-checking of their work should in no way preclude a subsequent check-up of the work by the teacher, not only in the classroom, but also at home. Of particular importance is the home verification of independent work of children. Experienced teachers pay great attention to this. Checking the work of children by a teacher at home is necessary for all types of written independent work of children in the classroom. She is one of the best means of improving student achievement, since when checking written work, the teacher sees the mistakes of children and therefore will know what needs to be done to help one or another student. One collective check in the class does not provide an individual approach to the student in subsequent work with him by the teacher.

The attentive and caring attitude of the teacher to the independent work of children and taking it into account has a deep

educational value. Only with a systematic account of the results of independent studies, when working in the classroom on the mistakes made, will children understand that these studies are just as important as direct work with the teacher. This will develop in children the consciousness of their responsibility for completing tasks, will strengthen discipline in the classroom and contribute to the overall upsurge work quality.

Types and Methods of Independent Work

The types of independent work of children are diverse. In choosing them, the teacher can widely show his initiative and creativity, not forgetting, however, that each type of independent work must correspond to the learning objectives and have a certain educational and educational value. Types of independent work used in the lesson, as a rule, depend on the objectives and content of the lesson. However, in the practice of school work, such types of independent work are also widely used, which sometimes do not have a direct connection with the content of the lesson, but are important in their general significance for mastering the given educational subject by children. Such types of independent work in the Russian language include, for example, grammatical analysis and writing (writing from memory).

Grammatical analysis as an independent work of children in the Russian language lessons is already used in the lower grades. In the second half of the year in grade I, children copy small texts from the board or from a book, single out separate sentences from them, write out the words underlined by the teacher, make them from the letters of the split alphabet, dividing each word into syllables, emphasise syllables with soft (hard) consonants in the words written out from the text, indicate vowels and consonants in the words.

In grade II, after introducing children to words denoting an object, quality, action, children independently recognise these words in the texts they read, pose questions to them, write out or

underline words, at first separately, grouping words denoting objects, words denoting their quality, actions. Then they connect words denoting objects with words denoting their quality or action. In grade II, as independent work, exercises are also carried out in dividing words into syllables, in highlighting

soft and hard consonants, in emphasising stressed syllables, in designating stressed vowels. In the process of practical acquaintance with the root of the word, children perform independent work on recognising related words in the text given by the teacher and writing them out with underlining their common part (root). As this skill develops, exercises are introduced in searching for given words-roots of related words (bel—white, squirrel, etc.).

This independent work is also widely used in subsequent classes: exercises in the formation of nests of words are also important for the development of children's speech (especially if with each new word the children come up with a sentence), and to develop literacy skills, in particular to learn the spelling of unstressed vowels.

In grades III and IV, grammatical analysis, as an independent work of children, is used in more detailed forms. Children independently practice in the morphological analysis of words, analysing their composition, indicating their grammatical forms.

At first, it is advisable to carry out a written grammatical analysis according to the schemes. The scheme disciplines the attention of children, helps to memorise the grammatical forms of parts of speech and makes it possible to compare and contrast individual grammatical forms. Written grammatical analysis of the text without using the scheme is carried out mainly as a test. Independent grammar analysis in one form or another should be an obligatory part of the grammar and spelling lesson.

Of great importance for the development of literate writing skills in a multi-class environment is a systematic exercise, children in a letter from memory. The skill of such writing develops in children gradually. Already in the first grade, the teacher teaches

children to transfer words in notebooks as a whole, and not in parts, when copying from the primer, like kids usually do. After reading the word in the primer, the student carefully peers into it. Then he closes the word with a piece of paper and writes the word from memory, without looking into the primer. After that, the student checks with the primer whether he spelled the given word correctly. First, children are accustomed to such copying from handwritten text, and then from printed. As they develop the ability to write from memory read individual words, children move on to the same copying of whole sentences, and then non-literary passages and poems memorised. At the same time, it is very important that the student, reading a sentence or passage, would understand the meaning of what was read. The teacher reads and analyses the text intended for copying with the children. Experience shows that such exercises, systematically applied by the teacher in Russian language lessons, give very positive results.

However, it should be borne in mind that the productivity of this type of independent work of children depends on the degree to which they master the skill of memory letters. Therefore, the teacher must persistently strive to ensure that the children strictly follow the rules when they copy: write the word or phrase they read without looking into the book, and address to the text only to check what was written.

In the practice of primary education, cheating in Russian language lessons occupies a significant place. Grammar and spelling exercises consist mainly of copying, complicated by this or that task. The performance of the task in these cases should not interfere with the development of the skill of writing from memory. The combination of these two tasks can practically be easily implemented. First, the teacher performs the exercise with the children orally, paying special attention to the conscious assimilation of the content of the work and to the practical mastery of the task. Then the children move on to writing. At the same time, the teacher reminds the children how to write off, and at the beginning of work makes sure that the letter is preceded by a

careful reading of the text and a preliminary, independent oral assignment.

Writing from memory can be closely related to the development of writing skills. Children read the story or passage indicated by the teacher and state it on their own, using the text for reference from time to time.

Independent work on grammar and spelling, of course, is not limited to grammatical analysis and copying. This should also include self-compilation by children declension and conjugation tables after oral exercises with the teacher; recording spelling rules and examples for them after deriving the rule with the teacher; a systematic exercise in writing words whose spelling must be remembered (for example, words with unstressed vowels that cannot be checked for stress), and independent work of children on mistakes made in writing. The last work has a particularly great educational and educational value. From the very first steps of training, it is necessary to teach children to find and correct own mistakes. To this end, the teacher, checking written work, children, is limited to underlining the word in which the error is made. At the same time, the teacher gives in the margins of the notebook or the correct spelling of the word, if an error is made in the word, the spelling of which must be remembered, or gives the corresponding spelling.

So, for example, if a student made a mistake in the word goat, then the teacher, emphasising this word in the text, writes in the margins of the notebook: mountains—mountain, goats... The student must add—goats—goat, and then find error in the text and correct it. In the upper grades, it is enough to limit oneself to indicating the original spelling, case, ending, etc., and, finally, in some cases, simply limit oneself to only underlining the word in which a mistake was made.

When choosing independent work in connection with reading and the development of children's speech, the teacher's attention should be drawn to those types of work that have been sufficiently tested in practice, In the pre-alphabetic period of teaching literacy,

as independent work, children are given preparatory exercises for letter. Children draw drawings from the primer or from the board, consisting of straight lines (house, ladder, table, chair, etc.), draw circles, triangles, squares with a pencil (using a stencil) and shade them. They write the simplest elements of letters: straight sticks, rounded sticks, ovals and semi-ovals.

When preparing children for these works, the teacher pays attention to the correct seating of the children, to the development of their skills to correctly place a notebook and hold a pencil.

At the beginning, each of these works is performed under the direct supervision of the teacher. The teacher shows the children the movements of the fingers when drawing and writing and observes that the exercises contribute to the development of the small muscles of the hand.

In addition to these independent works, in the pre-literary period of education, in order to develop the speech of children, an independent examination of drawings in the primer and wall paintings is introduced with the task of telling what is drawn on them.

During the alphabetic period of teaching literacy, the main types of independent work in the Russian language lessons are reading from the primer, composing words and phrases from the letters of the split alphabet, writing elements of letters, letters and words. Children independently read the page of the primer passed with the teacher. At the same time, the reading of individual words and phrases is accompanied by work with a split alphabet. Children make up each word or small phrase they read from the letters of the split alphabet, without looking into the primer. This work is carried out in the same way as writing from memory. Children make up captions for drawings from the letters of the split alphabet, which are posted by the teacher on the blackboard or given on separate cards (forks, sledges, frames, balls, etc.).

Independent work after explanatory reading is aimed at consolidating the ideas, concepts and emotions received by children

when reading, developing the logical thinking of children, their speech and creativity.

These tasks in the lower grades are carried out in such types of work as drawing pictures to read - to any episode of the story, to each part of the story (picture plan) and the story as a whole; answers to questions about what they have read (in their own words or in the words of a book); dividing the story into parts as directed by the teacher (the teacher gives the headings of the parts, the children look for these parts by reading the text); in preparing a retelling of what was read (according to a plan or without a plan).

In the upper grades, independent work is divided into three main sections: repeated reading and preparation for retelling, vocabulary work in connection with reading, written work in connection with reading.

When re-reading, the teacher can give the following tasks: retell what was read (on questions, according to a plan, without a plan), come up with and tell a case similar to what was read or come up with a plausible end to what was read, draw illustrations for what was read (or describe pictures in words), break the work into parts and title them, highlight the characteristic features of the hero from the text on the teacher's questions, answer questions on the content of what was read (select the appropriate places from the text), memorise a poem, a fable, an excerpt of prose.

When conducting vocabulary work, the following tasks are possible: read explanations of new words in a footnote and be able to briefly convey these explanations; make sentences with new words, find comparisons and definitions in the passage indicated by the teacher.

The main types of written work in connection with reading are: writing off the passage indicated by the teacher with underlining certain words in it (comparisons, definitions, etc.), writing out individual words and expressions, recording a plan drawn up with the teacher, written answers to questions, retelling and writing.

The main types of independent work in the lessons of arithmetic are oral and written calculations, solving and compiling problems.

In elementary grades, these exercises are carried out orally. Children solve the examples given by the teacher in their minds and show the results of the solution in split numbers, laying them out on their desks. After checking the work by the teacher, the children remove the numbers, write off the examples in a notebook, reproduce their solution and write down the results. Examples for independent solution are given to children in various forms: columns, tables, entertaining squares, counting in a circle, etc. These types of exercises are given in problem books.

For an independent solution, as a rule, tasks are given similar to those that were solved with a teacher. In the same way, self-compilation of simple tasks based on pictures or given examples is possible only after preliminary exercises with a teacher in solving similar problems.

Oral counting as an independent work in the lesson is also used in high school. However, here a large place is occupied by various independent exercises in written calculations. In this case, the solution of examples is necessarily accompanied by an independent verification of the results of actions.

Much attention in the classes in arithmetic in the upper grades is paid to the development of children's skills in solving complex problems. This goal can be served only by those complex tasks that are feasible for children to solve on their own. At the same time, we should not forget that the exercises in solving problems in the classroom are aimed at developing and consolidating the knowledge and skills that children have. These are in most cases training exercises, not control ones. Therefore, it is necessary that an independent solution of a complex problem leads to positive results. Often no attention is paid to this, and often the time devoted to the independent solution of the problem passes in the fruitless efforts of children. The benefits of such exercises are very limited. Hence the requirement of careful preparation of children

for the independent solution of complex problems. As independent work, a repeated solution of a difficult problem or a solution to a problem similar to the one that was just solved with the teacher can be given. Preparation for solving a complex problem consists in analysing the condition of the problem, in drawing up a solution plan, in preliminary solving simple problems that make up a complex problem.

The preliminary analysis of the condition of the problem usually ends with the children drawing up a solution plan on their own, and only after checking the plan do the children begin to solve the problem.

The main type of independent work in history, geography and natural science is work with a textbook. This work can pursue various goals: reading previously learned material for the purpose of repetition, learning new material in order to consolidate in memory what the teacher was talking about; independent preliminary study of new material.

Reading previously learned material with the aim of repeating it, as mentioned above, takes place at the beginning of the lesson, before the teacher presents new material. Independent work in this case is expressed in the preparation of answers to the teacher's questions by the children (the questions are written on the blackboard). Children's answers to questions should cover the range of those knowledge, without which it is impossible to consciously assimilate what the teacher will talk about. Questions posed for this purpose may concern the content of not only one article, but two or three articles. In the task, the teacher tells the children exactly what they need to read in order to prepare answers to the questions asked.

When learning new material, the teacher puts the task in a form that would make it easier for the children to firmly and consciously assimilate what they have read. To this end, it is useful to give the children a plan for retelling the article, and the plan can be drawn up by the teacher together with the children in the process of reproducing the educational material presented by him.

In the task, it is necessary to indicate what needs to be remembered well, written down in a notebook (names, titles, facts, dates). If the article that children are reading is accompanied by illustrations, then they must also be used for better assimilation of the material being learned. The teacher can give the task to prepare a story or an explanation based on the picture placed in the textbook, using the appropriate text for this.

Much less often is independent reading of new material by children. This independent work is possible in those cases when the educational material presented in this or that article is quite accessible for conscious assimilation by children, that is, when they have sufficient preparation for this. But even under this condition, reading for the purpose of independent initial assimilation of new educational material must necessarily be preceded by a teacher's conversation, introducing the content of the article intended for reading.

Approximate lesson schedule for teacher classes with grades I and III

		I Class		III Class			
Weekday	Class Hours	Subject	Approximate time distribution		Approximate time distribution		
			with the teacher	on one's own	Subject	with the teacher	on one's own
Monday	9-00—9-45	Russian language (reading)	25	20	Russian language (Grammar and writing) Arithmetic Russian language (reading) Calligraphy Singing	20	25
	9-55—10-40	Arithmetic	20	25		25	20
	11-10—11-55	Russian language (writing)	25	20		20	25
	12-05—12-50	Drawing	30	15		15	30
	13-00—13-45					45	—
Tuesday	9-00—9-45	Arithmetic	25	20	Arithmetic Russian language (Grammar and writing) Drawing Russian language (reading) Physical Education	20	25
	9-55—10-40	Russian language (reading)	25	20		20	25
	11-10—11-55	Calligraphy	20	25		25	20
	12-05—12-50	Russian language (writing)	25	20		20	25
	13-00—13-20					20	—
Wednesday	9-00—9-45	Russian language (reading)	25	20	Russian language (Grammar and writing) Arithmetic Russian language (reading) Physical Education Calligraphy	20	25
	9-55—10-40	Arithmetic	25	25		25	20
	11-10—11-55	Russian language (writing)	20	25		25	20
	12-05—12-50	Russian language (reading)	—	25		25	—
		Physical Education	20	—		—	20
Thursday	9-00—9-45	Russian language (reading)	20	25	Russian language (Grammar and writing) Arithmetic Russian language (reading)	20	25
	9-55—10-40	Arithmetic	25	20		20	25
	11-10—11-55	Russian language (writing)	20	25		25	20
	12-05—12-50	Singing	45	—			

Friday	9-00—9-45	Russian language (reading)	20	25	Russian language (Grammar and writing)	25	20
	9-55—10-40	Arithmetic	25	20			
	11-10—11-55	Calligraphy	25	20	Arithmetic	20	25
	12-05—12-50	Russian language (writing)	30	15	Russian language (reading)	20	25
					Russian language (Composition and Presentation)	15	30
13-00—13-25				Physical Education	25	—	
Saturday	9-00—9-45	Russian language (reading)	25	20	Russian language (Grammar and writing)	20	25
	9-55—10-40	Arithmetic	20	25	Arithmetic	25	20
	11-10—11-55	Russian language (writing)	25	20	Russian language (reading)	20	—
	12-05—12-50	Russian language (reading)	—	20	Physical Education	—	25
		Physical Education	25	—	Calligraphy		

Approximate lesson schedule for teacher classes with II and IV classes

Weekday	Class Hours	Subject	II Class		IV Class		
			Approximate time distribution		Approximate time distribution		
			with the teacher	on one's own	Subject	with the teacher	on one's own
Monday	9-00—9-45	Russian language (reading)	25	20	Russian language (writing)	20	25
	9-55—10-40	Arithmetic	25	20	Arithmetic	20	25
	11-10—11-55	Russian language (writing)	20	25	Geography	25	20
	12-05—12-50	Calligraphy	20	25	Natural Science	25	20
	13-00—13-25	Singing	25	—	—	—	—
Tuesday	9-00—9-45	Russian language (writing)	25	20	Russian language (reading)	20	25
	9-55—10-40	Arithmetic	20	25	Arithmetic	25	20
	11-10—11-55	Russian language (reading)	20	25	History	25	20
	12-05—12-50	—	—	—	Physical Education	45	—
	13-00—13-45	—	—	—	Singing	45	—
Wednesday	9-00—9-45	Arithmetic	25	20	Arithmetic	20	25
	9-55—10-40	Russian language (reading)	20	25	Russian language (writing)	25	20
	11-10—11-55	Arithmetic	20	25	Arithmetic	25	20
	12-05—12-50	Russian language (statement and presentation)	25	20	Geography	20	20
	13-00—13-45	Physical Education	20	—	Drawing	25	20 ¹

¹ Note: In the first half of the lesson, the teacher does physical education with class II for 20 minutes; during this time, students of class IV draw independently. In the second half of the lesson, the teacher is engaged in drawing with the IV class; students of the II class go home.

Thursday	9-00—9-45	Russian language (writing)	30	15	Russian language (Grammar and writing)	30	15
	9-55—10-40	Arithmetic	25	20	Arithmetic	20	25
	11-10—11-55	Russian language	20	25	History	25	20
	12-05—12-50	—	—	—	Russian language (reading)	45	—
	13-00—13-45	—	—	—	Physical education	45	—
Friday	9-00—9-45	Russian language (reading)	20	25	Russian language (writing)	25	20
	9-55—10-40	Arithmetic	20	25	Arithmetic	25	20
	11-10—11-55	Russian language (writing)	25	20	Natural Science	20	25
	12-05—12-50	Drawing	15	30	Geography	30	15
	13-00—13-20	Singing	20	—	—	—	—
Saturday	9-00—9-45	Russian language (writing)	25	20	Russian language (writing)	20	25
	9-55—10-40	Arithmetic	25	20	Arithmetic	20	25
	11-10—11-55	Russian language (reading)	20	25	History	25	20
	12-05—12-50	Calligraphy	15	30	Russian language	30	15
	13-00—13-20	Physical Education	20	—	—	—	—

Approximate lesson schedule for teacher classes with I, II and III classes

Days of the week	Class Hours	Subject	I Class		II Class			III Class			
			Approximate distribution of time		Approximate distribution of time			Approximate distribution of time			
			with a teacher	on one's own	Subject	with a teacher	on one's own	Subject	with a teacher	on one's own	
Monday	9-00—9-45	Arithmetic	45	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	9-55—10-40	Russian language (reading)	45	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	10-45—11-10	Singing	25	—	Arrival at school	—	—	Arrival at school	—	—	
	11-20—12-05	Russian language (writing)	10	35	Russian language (reading)	20	25	Russian language (writing)	15	30	
	12-15—1300	—	—	—	Arithmetic	25	20	Arithmetic	20	25	
	13-05—13-30	—	—	—	Singing	25	—	Main recess	—	—	
	13-40—14-25	—	—	—	Calligraphy	15	30	Russian language (reading)	30	15	
	14-35—15-20	—	—	—	Russian language (writing)	30	15	Calligraphy	15	30	
Tuesday	9-00—9-45	Arithmetic	45	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	9-55—10-40	Russian language (reading)	45	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	10-45—11-10	Physical Education	25	—	Arrival at school	—	—	Arrival at school	—	—	
	11-20—12-05	Russian language (writing)	10	35	Arithmetic	20	25	Russian language (writing)	25	20	
	12-15—1300	—	—	—	Russian language (writing)	25	20	Arithmetic	20	25	
	13-05—13-30	—	—	—	Main recess	—	—	Singing	25	—	
	13-40—14-25	—	—	—	Arithmetic	20	25	Russian language (writing)	25	20	
	14-35—15-20	—	—	—	Russian language (reading)	45	—	—	—	—	
Wednesday	9-00—9-45	Arithmetic	45	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	9-55—10-40	Russian language (reading)	45	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	10-45—11-00	Main recess	—	—	Arrival at school	—	—	Arrival at school	—	—	
	11-00—11-45	Russian language (writing)	20	25	Russian language (presentation and composition)	10	35	Russian language (reading)	15	30	
				—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
				—	—	Arithmetic	15	30	Arithmetic	20	25
	11-55—1240	Russian language (reading)	10	—	Physical Education	25	—	Main recess	—	—	
	12-45—13-10	—	—	—	Russian language (reading)	25	20	Russian language (writing)	30	15	
13-15—14-00	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
14-10—14-55	—	—	—	—	—	—	Calligraphy	45	—		

Thursday	9:00—9:45	Arithmetic	45	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	9:55—10:40	Russian language (reading)	45	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	10:45—11:05	Singing	20	—	Arrival at school	—	—	Arrival at school	—	—
	11:20—12:05	Russian language (writing)	15	30	Russian language (reading)	15	30	Russian language (writing)	15	30
	12:15—13:00	Calligraphy	15	30	Drawing	10	35	Arithmetic	20	25
	13:05—13:25	—	—	—	Singing	20	—	Main recess	—	—
	13:40—14:25	—	—	—	Arithmetic	15	30	Russian language (reading)	30	15
	14:35—15:20	—	—	—	Russian language (writing)	30	15	Calligraphy	15	30
Friday	9:00—9:45	Arithmetic	45	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	9:55—10:40	Russian language (reading)	45	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	10:45—11:05	Physical Education	20	—	Arrival at school	—	—	Arrival at school	—	—
	11:20—12:05	Drawing	10	35	Russian language (writing)	15	30	Russian language (writing)	20	25
	12:15—13:00	Russian language (writing)	15	30	Arithmetic	15	30	Arithmetic	15	30
	13:05—13:25	—	—	—	Main recess	—	—	Singing	20	—
	13:40—14:25	—	—	—	Calligraphy	15	30	Russian language (reading)	30	15
	14:35—15:20	—	—	—	Russian language (reading)	35	10	Russian language (presentation and composition)	10	35
Saturday	9:00—9:45	Arithmetic	45	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	9:55—10:40	Russian language (reading)	45	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	10:45—11:00	Main recess	—	—	Arrival at school	—	—	Arrival at school	—	—
	11:00—11:45	Calligraphy	10	35	Russian language (writing)	15	30	Arithmetic	20	25
	11:55—12:40	Russian language (writing)	15	30	Arithmetic	20	25	Russian language (writing)	10	35
	12:45—13:05	—	—	—	Physical Education	20	—	Main recess	—	—
	13:10-13:55	—	—	—	Russian language (reading)	30	15	Drawing	15	30
	14:05—14:50	—	—	—	—	—	—	Russian language (reading)	45	—
14:55—15:20	—	—	—	—	—	—	Physical Education	45	—	

Note: The teacher partially uses the first Russian lesson in the class to prepare children for independent writing in the next lesson.

An exemplary schedule of lessons for teacher classes with I, II, III and IV classes.

Days of the week	Class Hours	I Class			II Class			III Class			IV Class		
		Subject	Distribution of time		Subject	Distribution of time		Subject	Distribution of time		Subject	Distribution of time	
			with a teacher	on one's own		with a teacher	on one's own		with a teacher	on one's own		with a teacher	on one's own
Monday	9-00—9-45	Arithmetic	20	25	—	—	—	Arithmetic	25	20	—	—	—
	9-55—10-40	Russian language (reading)	25	20	—	—	—	Russian language (writing)	20	25	—	—	—
	10-45—11-10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	11-20—12-05	Main recess	10	35	Arrival at school	15	30	Singing	15	30	Arrival at school	5	40
	12-15—13-00	Russian language (writing)	19	35	Russian language (letter)	15	30	Russian language (reading)	—	—	Russian language (reading)	20	25
	13-05—13-30	Clean writing	20	—	Arithmetic	20	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	—	Physical education	—	—	Physical culture	25	20	—	—	—	Natural science	20	25
	13-40—14-25	—	—	—	Russian language (reading)	—	—	—	—	—	Main recess	45	—
	14-35—15-20	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Arithmetic	—	—
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Russian language (writing)	—	—
Tuesday	9-00—9-45	Arithmetic	20	25	—	—	—	Arithmetic	25	20	—	—	—
	9-55—10-40	Russian language (reading)	25	20	—	—	—	Russian language (reading)	20	25	—	—	—
	10-45—11-10	—	25	—	Arrival at school	—	—	—	—	—	Arrival at school	—	—
	11-20—12-05	Singing	10	35	Arithmetic	20	25	(reading)	5	40	Arrival at school	10	35
	12-15—13-00	Russian language (writing)	10	35	Russian language (writing)	15	30	Main recess	10	35	Russian language (writing)	10	35
	—	Russian language (reading)	—	—	—	—	25	Drawing	25	—	language (writing)	25	—
	—	—	—	—	—	20	20	Russian language (writing)	—	—	Arithmetic	25	20
	13-05—13-30	—	—	—	Main recess	25	—	—	—	—	Physical Education	20	25
	13-40—14-25	—	—	—	Arithmetic	—	—	Physical Education	—	—	History	—	—
	14-35—15-20	—	—	—	Russian language (reading)	—	—	—	—	—	Geography	—	—

Wednesday	9-00—9-45	Arithmetic	25	20	—	—	—	Arithmetic	20	25	—	—	
	9-55—10-40	Russian language (reading)	20	25	—	—	—	Russian language (writing)	25	20	—	—	
	10-40—11-00	Main recess	—	—	Arrival at school	—	—	—	—	—	Physical Education	—	
		Russian language (writing)	10	35	Russian language (presentation and composition)	15	30	Physical Education	20	—	Arithmetic Russian language (presentation and composition)	5	40
	11-00—11-45	—	—	—	Singing	10	35	Arithmetic Russian language (reading)	15	30	—	15	30
	11-55—12-40	—	—	—	Calligraphy	25	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	12-45—13-05	—	—	—	Arithmetic Russian language (reading)	25	20	—	—	—	Main recess	—	—
13-10—13-55	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Geography	20	25	
14-05—14-50	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Arithmetic	20	25	
14-55—15-20	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Singing	25	—	
Thursday	9-00—9-45	Arithmetic	20	25	—	—	—	Arithmetic	25	20	—	—	
	9-55—10-40	Russian language (reading)	25	20	—	—	—	Russian language (reading)	20	25	—	—	
	10-45—11-05	—	20	—	Coming to school	—	—	—	—	—	Coming to school	—	
	11-20—12-05	Singing	10	35	Russian language (reading)	16	30	Main recess	5	40	Arithmetic	15	30
	12-15—13-00	Russian language (writing)	—	—	—	20	25	Calligraphy	20	25	Drawing	5	40
	13-05—13-25	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	20	—	—	20	—
	13-40—14-25	—	—	—	Arithmetic	10	35	Russian language (writing)	—	—	Physical culture	35	10
	14-35—15-20	—	—	—	Main recess	25	20	Physical Education	—	—	Russian language (writing)	20	25
		—	—	—	Drawing	—	—	—	—	—	Natural science	—	—
		—	—	—	Russian language (writing)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Friday	9-00—9-45	Arithmetic	25	20	—	—	—	Arithmetic	20	25	—	—	
	9-55—10-40	Russian language (reading)	25	20	—	—	—	Russian language (reading)	20	25	—	—	
	10-45—11-05	—	—	—	Arrival at school	—	—	—	20	—	Arrival at school	—	
	11-20—12-05	Main recess	5	40	Calligraphy	5	40	Singing	15	30	Russian language (writing)	20	25
	12-15—13-00	Calligraphy	10	35	Russian language (writing)	15	30	Russian language (presentation and composition)	10	35	—	10	35
	13-05—13-30	Russian language (writing)	—	—	—	20	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	13-40—14-25	—	—	—	—	20	25	—	—	—	Arithmetic	25	20
	14-35—15-20	—	—	—	Singing	25	20	—	—	—	Main recess	20	25
		—	—	—	Arithmetic Russian language (reading)	—	—	—	—	—	History	—	—
		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Natural science	—	—

Saturday	9-00—9-45	Arithmetic	20	25	—	—	—	Arithmetic	25	20	—	—	
	9-55—10-40 1	Russian language	25	20	—	—	—	Russian language	20	25	—	—	
	0-40—11-00	(reading)	—	—	Arrival at	—	—	language	25	—	Physical	25	
	11-00—11-45	Big change	15	30	school	10	35	(letter)	15	30	Education	5	40
	11-55—12-40	Russian language	5	40	Russian	15	30	Physical	5	40	Russian	20	25
	12-45—13-05	(writing)	25	—	language	25	—	Education	—	—	language	—	—
	13-10—13-55	Drawing	—	—	(reading)	25	20	Russian	—	—	(presentation	20	25
	14-05—14-50	Physical Education	—	—	Arithmetic	—	—	language	—	—	and	45	—
	14-55—15-20	—	—	—	Physical	—	—	(reading)	—	—	composition)	20	—
		—	—	—	Education	—	—	Calligraphy	—	—	Geography	—	—
		—	—	—	Russian	—	—	—	—	—	Main recess	—	—
		—	—	—	language	—	—	—	—	—	Arithmetic	—	—
		—	—	—	(writing)	—	—	—	—	—	Russian	—	—
		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	language	—	—
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	(reading)	—	—	
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Singing	—	—	

In addition to reading a textbook, other types of independent work are used in the lessons of history, geography and natural science. So, in history, tasks related to the assimilation of chronology can be given. Children write chronological dates on cards, for example:

1242	Battle on the Ice	Alexander Nevsky
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When repeating the chronology, they select cards with dates and historical figures for the events indicated by the teacher or cards with dates and events for the named historical figures, etc.

In independent work on geography, assignments on desktop and contour maps occupy a large place. According to the table map, children, on the instructions of the teacher, show the geographical objects being studied (borders, cities, the location of minerals, etc.) with specially prepared bookmarks, for example: mountains are shown with brown stripes cut out of paper, cities with red circles, lowlands with green squares, etc.

Tasks on the contour map are expressed in self-drawing and signing the objects being studied, and these objects are previously marked on the contour map with bookmarks, and then, after checking by the teacher, they are applied with a coloured pencil and signed.

In addition, for independent work with a geographical map, exercises are given in determining directions and in calculating distances on a scale.

In natural science, in connection with observations and subsequent reading of the textbook, brief notes and sketches are possible as independent work. Children can write down the conclusion from the experience, draw the experience, mark the studied organs in the picture, etc.

Brief notes and sketches are also possible in geography. For example, draw a diagram of a river and designate the source, tributary, mouth; write down the name of the seas, lakes, rivers, etc.

Independent study of educational material from a textbook should, as a rule, follow the reading of a textbook with a teacher, and only light articles can be given for independent work without first reading them with the teacher, after his story or conversation.

When teaching with two classes, the independent work of children in the lesson takes half of the entire study time, and sometimes most of the lesson. Therefore, the quality of the entire educational work of the teacher depends on the success of its implementation. He must look at the independent work of students as his main task, which he is obliged to solve correctly and methodically every time.

Each new type of independent work can be introduced only after it has been mastered by children under the guidance of a teacher.

Independent work, even insignificant, should not be given hastily. In all cases, the teacher must thoroughly prepare for it: think over its content and methods of preparing students for it, taking into account the results of its implementation, etc. Only correctly delivered work can have a deep educational value, discipline children, develop very valuable character traits in them, awaken and strengthen their interest in learning.

