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# ПЕДАГОГИКА ВА ПСИХОЛОГИЯДА ИННОВАЦИЯЛАР

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## ИННОВАЦИИ В ПЕДАГОГИКЕ И ПСИХОЛОГИИ

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**ПЕДАГОГИКА ВА ПСИХОЛОГИЯДА ИННОВАЦИЯЛАР  
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# ПЕДАГОГИКА ВА ПСИХОЛОГИЯДА ИННОВАЦИЯЛАР ИННОВАЦИИ В ПЕДАГОГИКЕ И ПСИХОЛОГИИ INNOVATIONS IN PEDAGOGY AND PSYCHOLOGY

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## МАКТАБГАЧА ЁШДА ТАЪЛИМ ВА РИВОЖЛАНИШ ПСИХОЛОГИЯСИ

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### АННОТАЦИЯ

Ушбу мақолада мактабгача ёшдаги болаларнинг психологик ва шахсий ривожланиш кўрсаткичлари ҳамда мактабгача таълим тушунчасининг психологик мазмуни ҳақида сўз юритилган. Болаларга тарбия бериш учун аввало тарбияланадиган болаларнинг психикасини билиш керак бўлади. Болани ҳар жиҳатдан, психик хусусиятлари жиҳатидан ҳам яхши билмасдан туриб таълим-тарбия ишларини тўғри ташкил қилиб булмайд. Шу сабабли тарбиячилар ва ота-оналар учун психология фанининг, айниқса, болалар психологиясининг ахамияти ғоят катта. Bolalar psixologiyasi murakkab aqliy jarayonlarning asl mohiyatini tushunishga yordam beradi.

**Калит сўзлар:** ижодкорлик қобилияти, ахлоқий тарбия, тасаввур, умуминсоний қобилият, саводхонлик, жамият, муҳит, маданият.

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## ПСИХОЛОГИЯ ОБУЧЕНИЯ И РАЗВИТИЯ В ДОШКОЛЬНОМ ВОЗРАСТЕ

### АННОТАЦИЯ

В данной статье рассматриваются вопросы психологического и личностного развития дошкольников и психологический контекст дошкольного образования. Чтобы воспитывать детей, прежде всего необходимо знать психику воспитываемых детей. Невозможно правильно организовать воспитательную работу, не зная ребенка во всех отношениях, даже с точки зрения психических особенностей. Вот почему наука о психологии, особенно детской

психологии, так важна для педагогов и родителей. Детская психология помогает понять истинную природу сложных психических процессов.

**Ключевые слова:** способность к творчеству, нравственная воспитанность, воображение, общечеловеческие способности, грамотность, социум, среда, культура.

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## PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT IN PRESCHOOL AGE

### SUMMARY

This article discusses the issues of psychological and personal development of preschool children and the psychological context of preschool education. To raise children, first of all, you need to know the psyche of the children brought up. It is impossible to properly organize educational work without knowing the child in all respects, even from the point of view of mental characteristics. That is why the science of psychology, especially child psychology, is so important for educators and parents. Child psychology helps to understand the true nature of complex mental processes.

**Keywords:** creativity, moral education, imagination, universal human ability, literacy, society, environment, culture.

The question of how and what to teach preschool children is not new, but at the same time does not lose its relevance today. The disintegration of the unified system of preschool education, qualitative changes in school education have led to a variety of difficulties and problems. A significant number of children come to school psychologically not ready for school, many preschoolers suffer from various fears, a large percentage of children have problems with behavior and productive activities. All this indicates that the problem of finding effective ways of teaching preschoolers is waiting for its solution.

Now no one disputes that the features of education in General and the specifics of teaching preschool children in particular are directly related to age-related psychological patterns. This means that the organization of education of preschoolers requires taking into account their psychophysiological characteristics.

Sociological studies have shown that parents are primarily concerned about the health of children, as well as how their children are prepared for the upcoming schooling. Psychologists and teachers, experts in the field of education, for their part, talk about the mental development and features of the formation of the child's personality at this age. Many people point to the unfavorable state of Affairs with the strengthening of health and physical development of children of preschool age. The campaign to introduce schooling from the age of six has taken a particularly serious toll on children's health. Data of special researches speak about catastrophic consequences of this action, about deterioration of the most important indicators of health of children. However, even where there was no unjustified lowering of school age, the state of health of children leaves much to be desired. Physical inactivity and the associated low endurance, incorrect posture and curvature of the spine, medical diagnoses in an unacceptably large number of children entering school – all these troubles are very often associated with the conditions of stay of children in preschool institutions and in school.

Psychological surveys of children entering school, conducted by different authors, showed similar results: about a third of children who have reached the age of seven, psychologically not ready for school. This means that the difficulties encountered by children in primary school are, in a sense, programmed by pre-school education. Preparing children for school has been and remains one of the main goals of public preschool education. Traditional kindergarten classes are aimed at

achieving this goal. However, as we can see, direct efforts in this direction, no matter how great they may be, do not bring much success.

Of course, indicators of mental and personal development of children significantly depend on research approaches and methods. However, with all the variety of theoretical positions and methods used, the indicators that fix: 1) arbitrariness of behavior; 2) the ability to create; 3) moral education of children will certainly be significant.

1. It is necessary to recognize that graduates of mass kindergartens unprofitably differ in indicators of arbitrariness of behavior. Many of them are either clamped and shackled, or disinhibited and unmanageable. They have no real arbitrariness, no conscious control over their behavior. The main reason for this, in our opinion, overorganization, excessive regulation of the child's life, inappropriate methods of conducting classes with children in kindergarten.

2. Development of creative abilities in preschool age, as it is known, is closely connected with the leading activity of this period-children's game. No wonder the concept of "creative children's game" is used as a synonym for the concept of "plot-role-playing game". It is in the game that imagination is formed, without which no creativity is possible. At the present time, this most important institution of reproduction of fundamental universal abilities, formed over many and many millennia of human history and prehistory, is in such a state that it is not an exaggeration to say that children's play now needs to be revived. The underdevelopment of play activity is associated not only with a low level of creative abilities, but also with the underdevelopment of many other psychological qualities, for example, according to available data, the unpreparedness of seven-year-old children for school, which has already been mentioned, is also directly and directly due to this circumstance.

3. The difficulties of moral education of the younger generation are now aggravated by the loss of our society's value orientations and its deideologization. Many previously unconditional values, such as the value of conscientious work, the value of family relations, education – are now being seriously tested. The General alienation which has seized the most different areas of public life, has not passed also the sphere of education. The kindergarten is actually separated from the school, and talk about continuity in their work remains nothing more than talk. The family is alienated from both kindergarten and school, and so-called family work is often limited to planned activities such as parent-teacher meetings. Parents do not know what is happening to their children in the educational institution, and educators and teachers are often not aware of what the families of their pupils live.

Moreover, it is well known that students are alienated from the knowledge that is presented to them in educational institutions. They do not need this knowledge, it does not meet their needs and interests, and therefore it is not used independently by children. Alienation of knowledge is closely related to another characteristic of the modern educational process, which is the alienation of the activities of children in the classroom. The actual subject of this activity is usually an adult (teacher or educator), not a child. Under the current model of educational organization, educational activities are actually imposed on children by adults who set goals for this activity, show patterns and methods of action, control the educational process and evaluate its results. In other words, the whole semantic side of this activity belongs to the adult, children are assigned only Executive functions.

The possibility of removing alienation and overcoming the shortcomings of the existing educational system is seen not in the way of improving or partially reforming this system, but in the creation of a qualitatively new model, and the search should begin from the very first stages – from kindergarten. The creation of preschool didactics is associated with the search for its cultural foundations, that is, such an image of culture, where the "insoluble" problems of primary education were solved as if by themselves. As an example of such an educational environment, one can probably cite a peasant Patriarchal multi-generational family, where there were many children, but also many adults directly involved in their education. In this situation, the work of adults was well understood by children of all ages, and the problem of physical, mental, economic, labor, moral education did not stand at all, since everything happened by itself within the joint life of children

and adults, naturally and harmoniously. This culture did not include literacy. Nevertheless, it was a high culture, where every day of the calendar was spiritually meaningful, people's relations to the earth, to all living things, to nature and to each other were harmonious. By the age of seven, peasant children were naturally involved in productive work, and by the end of adolescence they had mastered all the intricacies of the peasant profession, which in fact was not a profession, but a way of life. Thus, the peasant family gave the child everything-and what we can give him today, and what even the most prosperous modern family fundamentally can not give.

In the family and only child in the family can learn human communication is in the family that there is an intimate depth and absoluteness of community, is what all life gives the psychological protection from adversity individualized existence. However, the modern family, as a rule of the nuclear type, is not able to provide the child with meaningful completeness of communication. The life of adult members of the modern family is such that they can not organically include their children in it, they can not give children a daily versatile fullness of joint activity and communication. Of course, the Patriarchal multi-generational family and the peasant culture within which it existed, as it once was, will not be able to return. However, it is necessary to clearly understand what was there and what we have lost, in order to try to reproduce the lost in modern conditions. The adoption of the prototype of the peasant family and culture as an ideal educational environment allows us to say that overcoming alienation in education is not a narrowly pedagogical problem, but the task of restructuring the whole way of life, restoring a holistic, meaningful life together and organic community of children and adults. An equally important and significant step in overcoming exclusion in education will be an excursion into the scientific and theoretical foundations of pedagogical approaches and systems.

As you know, every educational practice has a corresponding theory behind it, even if it is not explicitly formulated. The theoretical principles of pedagogy are largely based on the laws established and fixed in psychology, and psychological theories are based on certain philosophical views. The modern practice of primary education also has its own psychological basis and philosophical background. Such a philosophy, which for many decades nourished and justified our educational practice, was elevated to the rank of state ideology philosophy of dogmatized Marxism. However, it was not so much the direct influence of Marxism on Soviet pedagogy that was more effective than the indirect one - through psychological theories, which formed the scientific basis of educational practice.

In the early 1920s, the psychologists of the country were tasked to rebuild their science on the basis of the philosophy of Marxism. Under the General ideological roof in psychology there were various schools, directions, including absolutely not Marxist sense. However, along with this, there were sincere attempts to build psychology on this philosophical basis. Despite the diversity they are United by the Central idea of dialectical materialism is the development of higher from lower: matter in its self raises itself from the immaterial, the spiritual; in primitive societies, the conditions and prerequisites for a revolutionary leap to a more complex form of social life; the economic base is the cause and explanation of all significant changes in the superstructure. It must be said that the materialist idea has had and still has substantial support in the scientististic attitudes that still prevail in the public consciousness: scientific - means justified, proven, reliable. Therefore, the "more scientific", the better, on the principle of "butter porridge will not spoil." In modern society, both here and abroad, an irrational belief in science prevails. It should be noted that the scientific consciousness has developed within the classical natural Sciences it happened relatively recently. Every scientific theory is, in the extreme, nothing more than a system of axioms and rules of inference from them. Therefore the model and ideal of all other Sciences, if they are to be Sciences, is mathematics. Where the axiomatic construction of science fails, there is a certain approximation to it in the form of initial idealization-abstractions that serve as the ultimate explanatory principle.

For more than a hundred years psychology has been striving to become a "real" science. If it succeeded, it too could explain and predict, from its fundamental idealizations (that is, construct according to certain rules), an arbitrarily complex phenomenon with relatively simple abstractions.

Both Marxism and scientism in psychology combined to bring theoretical thought to a dead end from which it was no longer possible to see the Central problem of this science – the problem of development.

Methodological impotence of scientific attitudes in psychology is most clearly detected during the setting of the problem. When using the scientific methods described above, development is instantly reduced to some processes that development can not be. More often than not, scientific reductionism rests on naturalistic dead ends. For example, modern biologicheskii solution to the problem of development put its sources and driving forces in genetics, molecular codes in the cells of the body. The naivety of such "solutions" is so obvious that it does not need comments. The reverse side of the same coin – sociologizatorstvo, bringing all the content of the concept of "development" in the outside world – in society, environment, culture. In many works, the absolutization of the social conditioning of the human psyche was presented as the only true Marxist solution. At the same time, the most consistent theorists of the direction recognize that from these positions to talk about the development of the human individual in the strict meaning of the concept does not make sense. The child does not develop, but only assimilates social experience. So, V. Davydov clearly and unambiguously writes: "the Dignity of "development" in the dialectical understanding is possessed only by such objects, which are integral systems ("totalities"), existing according to their own and only their own laws (the law is a universal way of connecting special phenomena within a given system). Is the individual a similar system? The whole point of theories that consistently reveal the failure of "robinsonades" is precisely what leads to a negative answer to the question posed. The individual is not a system that has "inputs" and "outputs" in itself. It is only an element of a truly holistic system, which is the essence of "society". It is the latter, and only it, that has development as the self-unfolding of immanent contradictions. The individual, taken by himself, has no such development.

The application of the term "mental development" to an individual is not legitimate if one is aware of the meaning of this term and does not stand on the positions of the naturalistic theories of man. If this term still make sense to operate with the concept "mental development of the individual", then, like piaget, we must recognize the autonomy and self-sufficing importance of the individual, it is necessary to see him as a complete system, which ultimately is equal to the negation of its social nature.

But what happens to a person from birth to death? It is nothing else than the acquisition, acquisition, assimilation, appropriation of the underlying "social nature", defined in the material and spiritual culture, that is, in the special products, the objective activity of previous generations of people. There is a formation of its own activity, in particular, and its governing mechanisms-the psyche. All that ultimately appears as the activity of the individual, as well as all the conditions for its formation-all this originally existed as a social pattern outside and independently of the given individual ("given", and not at all outside the "individual", because the patterns themselves exist in the activities of these individual individuals).

Thus, all kinds and ways of human activity, including his individual activity, needs, aspirations, inclinations from the beginning to the end is the result of the appropriation of socially defined and in a certain sense normative models of this activity. Public institutions somehow determine the nature of the process of formation of the individual in his image and likeness" (Davydov V. V. Requirements of modern primary education to the mental education of children of preschool age // Preschool education. - 1970. No. 4).

This lengthy quotation very accurately characterizes the "Hegelian" version of Marxism in Soviet psychology. Many psychological theories could be attributed to this direction. Without setting ourselves the task of analyzing this trend, we only note that both in openly biologizing and consistently sociologizing theories (and, even more so, in the compromise theory of the convergence of two factors), Soviet psychology has lost the "Golden key" to the problem of development, which it once held in its hands. We are talking about the cultural and historical concept of L. Vygotsky.

Probably, from the standpoint of modern psychology, In the works of L. Vygotsky, you can find naive things, misconceptions and tribute to the time in which the scientist lived. However, it is much more important to see in his works what psychology could not realize, including the scientific school that bears his name. The experimental genetic method proposed by him allows to model in experimental conditions the essential moments of the development process. How is this possible, if, according to the correct conclusion of V. Davydov, only integral systems – totalities-are capable of development as self-development? How can one scientifically study man as a totality if the scientific method is in principle a method of reduction to a skinny abstraction? How Did L. Vygotsky manage to grasp the feather of the Firebird, called "development", if he worked in the direction of scientific knowledge?

In the work Of V. Bibler "Thinking as creativity" (1975) it is shown that the theoretical and methodological thought of L. Vygotsky does not fit into the framework of classical science. In his works, written in the 1920s-30s, demonstrated the possibility of a new, non-classical science. Let this be only a possibility, but it is with it that hopes for the solution of modern scientific problems and "insoluble" problems of educational practice are connected. In our opinion, the ideas expressed by L. Vygotsky allow us to build psychology as an explanatory science and, at the same time, avoid the reductionism inherent in the scientific method of cognition. Especially important is the idea that allows us to understand the relationship between learning and development.

In the work "Training and development at school age", where L. Vygotsky considers the strategy and tactics of building training in school, it is emphasized that only the training is good, which leads to development. The expressed idea is directly related to the preschool education considered by us in this manual.

At development of preschool didactics it is necessary to mean from the very beginning that training of preschool children has to promote full-fledged mental and personal development of children, formation at them of psychological readiness for school training, formation of morals and development of creative abilities. Moreover, it is not an exaggeration to say that the lack of training or improperly constructed training leads to difficulties with personal development, low levels of psychological readiness for school, problems with morality and lack of creativity.

Construction of education of preschool children, which will lead to the development of preschoolers, it is advisable to start with the consideration of the psychological content of the concept of "training". The content of the concept of "training" is usually associated with some activity in which, on the one hand, there is one who transmits knowledge and skills, and one (or those) who assimilates this knowledge and skills. At the same time, the result of such activity is associated with the transformation of the subject from the ignorant to the knowing, from the incompetent to the able. However, not every activity in which there is a teacher and students can be called learning. In all educational institutions - from kindergarten to University-there are students who take part in such activities, but do not turn into "experts". Sometimes such people are few, and sometimes they make up the majority of those who occupy the position of the student.

Primary school teachers are well aware of this fact: immediately after studying the topic, more than 95 % of students cope with the tasks proposed in the control work, and the teacher begins to study a new topic. But if, after some time, children are again offered to perform a control work on the recently passed material without prior repetition, the results of the second control, as a rule, are much worse. It turns out that students have forgotten a lot and are now experiencing difficulties in performing those tasks that a few weeks ago were easy to perform. Thus, good results of the first control work were connected not with transformation of children from ignorant in knowing, and with properties of their memory: they remembered necessary definitions and ways of the decision of tasks, and at performance of tasks used the algorithm of their decision available in memory. The same phenomenon is common among students. Often, having successfully passed the session, after a short time they can not remember the basic provisions of a discipline. Many times it was necessary to face that seniors cannot help freshmen with the solution of problems. In such cases, we are not dealing with learning and its results, but with the mental function of memory, which has its own laws, including those directly related to forgetting. At the same time, there are situations when

there is no teacher and students, but there is a genuine learning process. For example, sometimes children after watching numerous cartoons in a foreign language gradually begin to speak it. There is a case when there is no educator and children do not have the task to learn, but the result of such activities is their transformation from not knowing a foreign language to people who more or less own it.

A similar situation arose in the case of a student who, while studying at the faculty of Humanities, had problems with mathematics. He tried his best to understand and learn it, asked his classmates to explain the material again, asked for help from Tutors. But he still couldn't pass the math exam. After another failed attempt, the frustrated student was walking home and slipped, fell and broke his leg. Forced to do nothing, he lay in bed and read fiction in the room where his brother, a technical University student, was preparing with his comrades for exams, in particular, in mathematics. And my brother and because of age (he studied in the third year, while our patient-only in the first), and because of the specifics of the University material was much more difficult. As a result of this passive participation in the preparation of his brother for the exam, the student himself passed the math exam after recovery, and even became able to explain difficult tasks to his classmates. As we can see, there was neither a teacher nor a learner, but the result shows that the learning process took place. Thus, the presence of the educator and learners is not always a characteristic of learning. At the same time, some activities that are not externally similar to the learning process lead to a change in the characteristics of the subject. To understand the reason for this, let's try to determine the psychological content of the concept of "training".

On the one hand, we have several times turned to the psychological content of the concept of learning, pointing out that the result of the learning process is the transformation of the subject from the ignorant to the knowledgeable, from the incompetent to the able. On the other hand, this characteristic of the learning process needs to be clarified and concretized. If we confine ourselves to the thesis of the transformation of the subject into the knower, it is difficult (and sometimes impossible) to distinguish the actual learning from the results of memorization. So, in the above examples of primary school students and students, it would seem there is a transformation of them from ignorant to owning new material and successfully applying knowledge. However, the changes that occurred with them were temporary, which are not the result of the learning process, but only the result of memorization. In other words, no change and transformation of students from ignorant to knowledgeable has occurred. At one lesson, preschool children were simultaneously given knowledge about the names of parts of the designer and the laws of buildings. By the end of the lesson, all the children could distinguish between a tetrahedron and a cylinder, a parallelepiped and a cone. In addition, they confidently repeated: that the building does not fall apart, at its base you need to put the largest parallelepiped. After the end of the lesson, the children relaxed: someone began to play, someone began to look at pictures in books, some children turned to building material. At the same time, the boy, who had just formulated what to do to keep the building from falling apart, took a small cube and began to build something on its basis. On the surprised question of the adult that he does, the boy at first pretended not to hear, and then answered: "and suddenly will not fall apart!"

There is a situation when, on the one hand, the student has acquired new properties and qualities, and on the other hand, has not really changed. Everyone is familiar with this aspect of the problem of content and effectiveness of training. For example, a Junior high school student who has excellent grades in mathematics and confidently reproduces the multiplication table, is unable to calculate how much to pay for two servings of ice cream and what change to get. Or a high school student, well versed in the interaction of acid and alkali, has difficulty baking a cake, not knowing what to do to extinguish the excess soda or, conversely, neutralize the acid. Numerous cases of confusion of young professionals in the workplace are widely known, when it is necessary to solve the simplest practical problem: it is easy to cope with a worker who does not even have a secondary education, and yesterday's student, who studied for one five and received a red diploma, has difficulties. In all these and many other similar cases we are dealing with what looks like learning, but in its content is not learning.

The thesis of the transformation of the subject from the ignorant to the knowing, from the incompetent to the able in relation to learning means that the changes that occur must be associated with the consciousness of the learner. In other words, the result of genuine learning must be a change in the subject's consciousness. So, the psychological content of the concept of "training" is associated with a change in human consciousness. Thus, the organization and construction of training assumes that the teacher really imagines what changes will happen to the student or group of students as a result of this process. In the case where the result of the activity were the skills and knowledge of the subject without changing his consciousness, we are not dealing with the learning process. If a child learned to play some musical instrument, he has not changed, has not become a different treat around sounding music not purchased musical imagination, it is received the skills most likely will be forgotten as soon as he ceases to attend the school. This is easy to see when comparing the number of people who have primary musical education and people who actually play musical instruments.

At the same time, among the students of music, we can distinguish a group of people who are not always successful in learning, but in the process of learning they change personally. So, nothing stood out the girl, sitting down at the piano, qualitatively changed: she became emotional, she appeared and a special plastic, which was not in everyday life, she had her own view of the work, not always coinciding with the opinion of the teacher. In other activities, such as teaching at school, she was only a performer who carefully, but without emotion, did what the teacher demanded. Such changes can be observed in people who are self-learning music, as they love to play, sing and want to accompany themselves or someone else. As a rule, they quickly begin to pick up by ear different melodies, while not always well and conscientiously performing tasks to practice the technique. However, we can say that in this case we are dealing with real learning, since even poor musical technique and low grades in music school are compensated by the inclusion of music and music education in their real life. Such people often independently master other musical instruments, comprehend the basics of harmony, not provided by the program of the music school, because they want to play their favorite melody with two hands, etc. Changes in the consciousness of the student indicate that he was included in the learning process. If we try to formulate what happens to the subject in the process of learning, we can say that he acquires a new "point outside".

Similar we can observe and in other processes. As a rule, the child learns speech in the period from one to three years. It is at this age that he learns to relate words to the objects which these words signify. In the same period of development, children acquire the ability to use speech to describe specific situations or understand what is being said, focusing on the words of other people. Thus speaking and not speaking children qualitatively do not differ from each other if both those, and others understand the words addressed to them, or as psychologists speak, have passive speech. In three or four years (of course, with full mental development) with children there are qualitative changes associated with their speech development. They do not just describe a situation or name specific things, but with the help of their speech they begin to replace objects or situations with words.

When a child under three years old says "bear", he should see this bear and even hold it in his hands. To the child with whom there were changes, the word "bear" replaces a favourite toy. For these changes to occur, the child needs to "look" at his own speech or speech addressed to him, from the outside, that is, from a "point outside". Psychologists say that at the age of 3-4 years, children become the subject of speech. If until this time speech was used unconsciously: the kid does something, accompanying his actions with some words, but for himself he only jumps from the threshold, shakes the bear. The manifestation of the subject of speech means that the child begins to realize that in addition to actions, he also says: in one case - "jump", and in the other - "bear sleeps". It is this change in consciousness that leads to the fact that in the future he can only say the word "jump". And for him, and for the one with whom he communicates, it will mean the situation of his jumping from the threshold of the room. The appearance of the subject of speech in this case means that the child has acquired a "point outside" of his own speech activity.

Another example relates to the professional teaching activities. In the pedagogical Institute a few years ago, applicants were asked the following question: "You need to buy a certain thing, but you see that there is a large queue at the counter. What are your actions?" Applicants who admitted that they will try to leave this queue were asked not to enter the Institute, as they, according to the authors of the test, lacked an important quality of the teacher-patience.

It is unlikely that this quality is originally inherent in all applicants of the pedagogical Institute, but the teachers, really, patience is necessary. You can meet a teacher who explains his conflict with one of the students by the fact that he is too slow, that is, the difference in temperaments prevents the student from waiting for an answer to the question. At the same time, there are quite a few teachers who, despite the peculiarities of their character and temperament, change both in their professional activities and in real life. Of course, a teacher with a choleric temperament does not become melancholic or sanguine, but learns to wait patiently for the reaction of the slowest student. In addition, such teachers have fewer conflicts with their own children, because they will patiently wait for their three-year-old to dress himself and tie his shoelaces, while teachers who do not know how to curb their temperament, as a rule, quickly dress the child themselves, so as not to be late for kindergarten, and then complain about the lack of independence of their children and morning scandals.

The main difference between teachers of the first and second groups is that the second have a special professional consciousness that allows you to manage your personal characteristics and even change them. If the former treat their profession as an activity that should be performed by an adult, and this activity does not change anything in their consciousness, the latter receive in the form of professional self-consciousness a "point outside" themselves, their personality, their physiological and psychological characteristics. Thus, the changes in consciousness that occur as a result of the learning process give the subject new "points outside." It is this feature of training and allows you to find a practical criterion of training.

In the system of education adopted in our country, despite its diversity and wide age range, as a rule, tasks that students must perform after mastering new material are used as a control of learning results. At school it is mainly tests, in institutions-exams and tests. In recent years, tests based on the principle of control works have become very popular. We have already said that even well-performed tests often do not speak about the level of knowledge and do not characterize the learning process. All of the above forms of control involve conscientious activities of the contractor, for the implementation of which no changes in consciousness, no "points outside" are needed. Activity changes dramatically when the learner is asked not to solve a problem or to define a concept, but to teach others to solve problems or to explain what a situation or situation means. To perform these seemingly simple tasks, the subject needs to look at the situation from the outside. The ability of yesterday's disciple to become a teacher in relation to someone will show whether he has a "point outside", whether there have been changes in consciousness, whether organized activity has become a real learning for him. In addition to the fact that the ability to teach another is an indicator and result of the learning process, the conditions under which the learner becomes a learner help to build and construct the learning process itself or, if necessary, to adjust it.

Psychologists are well aware that developmental or correctional training of a person is especially effective when it is proposed to teach a younger or lagging friend the material that the student is good at. For example, eighth-ninth grade students who have problems with mathematics, it is very useful to work out mathematics with fifth graders; students who have problems in the third-fourth year, pull up the "tails" will help classes with applicants or freshmen. Each time, taking the position of a teacher, a person evaluates not only his student and his difficulties, but also his own knowledge and skills. Often this position helps to get changes in consciousness and transform the activity into a learning process.

Of course, such training involves some additional conditions. After all, if you just let one teach the other, the teachers, whose activities we have analyzed in this Chapter, must inevitably change and have numerous and diverse "points outside." However, this is not always the case.

Thus, the position of the teacher becomes an effective criterion of the learning process and helps learning to become learning in the psychological sense of the word. At the same time, both the position of the teacher and the learning process itself need to create additional conditions. Different types of training, differing goals and position of the student, are implemented in different ways. One of the most common forms of education are classes, which are called lessons in school, in universities are called lectures and seminars, and in children's educational institutions (kindergartens) and are called – classes. In addition, we can distinguish a form of training directly related to various activities. For example, a child plays with other children in the store, some children play the role of buyers – they have to choose what they want to buy and pay for the selected product; others represent sellers – they have to get money for the goods, give change and pack the purchase. At the end of the game it turns out that the child, who, starting to play, did not know how to properly pay for the purchase, or get the change, is now quite oriented in the account. Thus, the play activity in which the child took part became a form of his education.

Another example. A teenager has to make a drawing for a wall newspaper. However, it does not have the right color paint. He tries to replace it with existing ones, adding different amounts of water, mixing one paint with another. The result of such activity can be considered a drawing and knowledge of the laws of the formation of a particular shade, color. In this case, the training is in the form of visual activity. An adult has purchased a new appliance without operating instructions, or the existing instruction was in a foreign language, which he does not know. The person involuntarily begins to understand numerous buttons and levers, pressing that on one, on another, choosing their different combinations. The result of such subject activity will be the ability to use this device. In addition, the owner of the device may be able to repair it in case of failure or use it in a non-specific function, since he has acquired knowledge of the principles of its device. Therefore, the subject activity in this case was simultaneously a form of education.

So, different types of training can be implemented in special classes, in organized or spontaneous activities, as well as in different practical situations that allow a person to acquire new knowledge and skills. Talking about the forms of implementation of different types of training suggests another aspect of this problem, which is associated with the organization of the educational process. It is accepted to allocate collective, individual and microgroup training. On the one hand, the names of forms of education indicate the number of students, on the other hand, the number of students is only their external characteristic. The main difference is in the features of the organization of the educational process.

The main feature of collective learning is associated with the fact that a group of people studying is a holistic team. In this case, the pedagogical process involves the presence of the educator and students, and, regardless of the number of those who are trained, they act as a single entity. Collective learning is the most common form and has a long history. For most of us, school and sometimes pre-school education was conducted in this way. The main advantage of collective learning is that it can be used to train a large number of people at the same time. However, in this case, as a rule, neither the individual characteristics of students nor the presence of a motive for learning are taken into account. Often collective learning is called such forms of activity that have nothing to do with this form of learning. Recall the situation from the film R. Bykov " Attention, turtle." At first glance, we have a collective education: there is a teacher with a clear pedagogical position, there is a class and educational material that children have to learn. But if you look closely, you can see that one child is playing under the Desk with dolls, the second communicates with a neighbor, others play with a turtle brought to class. At the same time, children do not pay attention not only to the teacher, but also to each other, except for situations when they are engaged in some business together. This is a fairly typical situation that develops in lessons and classes in which a collective form of training should be used.

The fact is that it assumes first of all the presence of a team, that is, people who have the same goals and objectives. Only in this case it is possible to neglect their individual characteristics and interests. Therefore, when organizing or using collective training, the teacher needs to create the team that he will later teach. Many teachers go Hiking with children, organize excursions, come

up with and hold interesting events. This helps them to unite individuals into a team and, as a result, effectively implement collective learning.

The pronounced positions of the educator and learners in collective learning make this form the most suitable for direct and reactive types of learning. Indirect and spontaneous types of training, as a rule, are implemented in other forms, as the organization of any activity or the construction of situations that promote learning, may be unproductive for a large group of students. In these conditions, even despite the presence of a cohesive team, the results of training can be qualitatively different for different members. Similarly, it is almost impossible to organize collective training, focusing on individual programs of students. Lack of focus on individual or collective desires and interests of students often leads to undesirable results of collective learning. First, even if there are common goals and objectives in the team, its members understand and assimilate new material in different ways. Therefore, when using collective learning, a group of students is formed, the learning results of which are unsatisfactory. Second, the dominance of collective learning has a negative impact on both the teacher and the students. Teachers using mainly this form of training, as a rule, are not focused on the individual characteristics of their students, have problems in organizing and conducting discussions, discussions, can not help students experiencing difficulties. Many of them, even studying with students individually, can not go beyond collective learning. Students, for whom the collective form of education is the main, have serious problems in the implementation of individual activities, are unprepared for independent learning, are characterized by a passive position, inability to defend their own opinion. As a rule, collective learning is opposed to individual learning, which received its name not from the presence of only one student, but from the orientation of the teacher in the first place on the student. Accordingly, individual training can be implemented even in the usual class-class system, but the process in this case will be qualitatively different from when there is a collective training.

If the collective training of all participants, as a rule, are engaged in the same activity, the individual each participant in the educational process has its own task. The differences between collective and individual forms of learning are clearly visible in the analysis of the relations between the teacher and the students. If in collective training the teacher communicates with a class (group, course), then at training in an individual form the teacher communicates with each participant of educational process individually.

In the 1980s of the XX century, when the mass media paid close attention to innovator teachers, many were struck by the method of communication with students demonstrated by Sh. Amonashvili. He, in particular, asked the children to tell him the answers to the solved problems in his ear. Many teachers, trying to adopt the method of Sh. Amonashvili, also tried to use this technique. But, as it turned out, not everyone managed to reproduce this simple action. It seems that the whole point is that this technique is part of a specially organized individual training. In the case of learning in a different form, it is difficult to ensure that teacher and student exchange information in this way.

Features of individual training are such that it can be implemented almost all types of training. Its use in the real educational process involves the high skill of the teacher, who even when implementing his own program focuses on those whom he teaches. At the same time, a teacher using individual training needs to know and understand the characteristics of his students, concerning both the position of the students and their personal characteristics, interests, hobbies. Individual training allows to realize both the program of the educator, and the program of those who study, promotes emergence of change in consciousness of pupils, helps to assimilate effectively new knowledge and skills. However, the use of individual training has a number of serious limitations. First, students who use predominantly one-on-one learning tend to have difficulty in reactive learning. Secondly, they do not know how to communicate with peers, have problems both in performing joint activities, and in the ability to understand the other, to look at the situation through his eyes. Thirdly, such students are unable to explain to anyone material that they are good at, or teach certain skills.

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